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Operationalising Approach to Public Health and personalising a community

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Abstract

Our work brings together theories and methodologies from public health and the learning sciences to develop a culturally relevant community-based intervention aimed at promoting healthy childhood development. We present our approach to personalising a community-based family intervention to prevent childhood obesity that aims to enhance participants' agency. We argue that situating obesity within the individual's multi-layered context not only provides a more robust understanding of the causes, but also generates sustainable options for promoting healthy lifestyles. Our findings emphasise the importance of a situated approach to learning that leverages social systems as a key resource for better navigating the environmental, material and ideational infrastructures that support healthy lifestyles.

Keywords: *personalised health, community engagement, obesity prevention, community health education, community intervention*

Introduction

Maintaining a healthy lifestyle is critical to the prevention of chronic disease. Health-related behaviors – such as unhealthy diets, physical inactivity, tobacco use and illicit drug/alcohol use – account for 80 per cent of heart disease, stroke and type 2 diabetes, and 40 per cent of cancers (Ezzati et al. 2004; Spring, Moller & Coons 2012). These un-

healthy practices are common and rarely occur alone: data from large national health surveys indicate that over 50 per cent of Americans do not meet dietary or physical activity recommendations; the average number of unhealthy practices is 1.7 per US adult; and 17 per cent of US adults report more than three unhealthy practices (Fine et al. 2004). These unhealthy practices are directly linked to obesity, and when they start in early child-

hood, put children at risk of lifelong health complications.

Indeed, our society is currently facing a childhood obesity epidemic. The most recent estimates suggest that 17 per cent of children in the United States are obese, and 33 per cent are overweight (Ogden et al. 2015). This childhood obesity epidemic will have lasting consequences, including increased rates of heart disease, diabetes and cancer (Calle et al. 2003; Leunissen et al. 2009). If trends in childhood obesity are left unabated, 30 to 40 per cent of today's children may eventually develop Type 2 Diabetes and will be the first generation of Americans to have a shorter life expectancy than their parents (Olshansky et al. 2005).

In the last two decades, public health scientists have conducted over 300 behavioural interventions to support healthy childhood behaviours and reduce childhood body mass index (BMI), which have achieved modest success (Birch & Ventura 2009; Institute of Medicine 2006; Summerbell et al. 2005). These interventions often have been neither sustainable nor successful with culturally and linguistically diverse populations. Childhood obesity is the result of multiple factors at the level of the individual, the family, the community and the larger society (Huang et al. 2009). The multi-layered nature of childhood obesity makes prevention a complex undertaking.

Public health recognises the complexity of behaviour change and has developed models that account for the social determinants of health (CSDH 2008; Marmot & Wilkinson 2006). While public health has done significant work to reduce health disparities, much of these efforts are orientated towards improving access, coverage and quality of healthcare (Starfield 2006). Although medical care is important, it is only one component of improving health (McGinnis & Foege 1993). A complementary approach includes developing interventions that address social determinants of health and prevent the onset of disease. As such, increasing attention is being

given to developing culturally responsive health interventions (Bernal 2006). However, most health interventions aimed at meeting the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse populations orient their approach dominantly around the inclusion of bilingual, culturally competent community health workers (Henderson, Kendall & See 2011).

In the following pages, we argue that developing sustainable and successful interventions for diverse populations requires a novel paradigm informed by insights from the learning sciences, which have a long history of developing personalised interventions for culturally and linguistically diverse populations. By drawing on the learning sciences, we further situate human action in the social world, casting learning as an aspect of a learner's participation within a culturally and historically situated community of practice (Lave & Wenger 1991). Conceptualising health-related practices as socially situated necessitates approaches to learning that account for the variance in social and cultural practices and ways of knowing. However, medical interventions are typically conceptualised as one-size-fits all, meaning that they often are not responsive to culturally and linguistically diverse populations. This raises a critical problem around equity. Rates of childhood obesity are exacerbated in economically disadvantaged and non-dominant communities (Ogden et al. 2015). Thus, the frontier of childhood obesity research asks how we can develop personalised and sustainable solutions to establishing health-related practices in early childhood to prevent the subsequent lifelong consequences of obesity.

Applying a transdisciplinary approach that joins together public health and the learning sciences has several advantages in the attempt to personalise and contextualise learning of health-related practices. The medical literature cites the immediate cause of the development of obesity as the energy imbalance between energy intake and energy expenditure. As such, obesity has historically

been seen as an individual-based problem due to an inability to regulate this energy balance. Although this model is sufficient to predict obesity likelihood based on energy intake, it fails to account for the complexity of health-related practices and circumstances that contribute to obesity. Food practices and energy expenditures are shaped by culturally situated practices and are enabled or constrained by environmental, material, ideational and social resources (Gordon-Larsen et al. 2006). The environmental dimension of health refers to the built environment; the material refers to technical tools that support access to health information; the ideational refers to knowledge related to health promotion; and the social refers to the relational resources that can enable healthy lifestyles. Improving health fundamentally involves the learning of new practices that can facilitate navigation of the many factors that influence health outcomes – an area of research that is well known to the learning sciences.

In the next sections, we present our approach to personalising a community-based family intervention for childhood obesity with the intent of moving away from the ‘treatment’ of individuals and towards an approach that seeks to enhance participants’ agency to navigate the environmental, material, ideational and social world of health. Our approach bridges the fields of learning sciences and public health, with the aim of contributing to the methodological and theoretical understanding of sustainably changing health practices. We argue that situating obesity within the individual’s multi-layered context not only provides a more robust understanding of the causes, but also generates sustainable options for promoting healthy lifestyles. Our findings emphasise the importance of a situated approach to learning that leverages social systems as a key resource to better navigating the systems that support healthy lifestyles.

Conceptual framework

The paradigm of personalised medicine considers how best to tailor treatments to meet the unique needs of individuals. But, recognising which treatments work best and for whom has been traditionally limited to the fields of pharmacology and genetics. Bringing together conceptual frameworks from the public health and learning sciences, our goal is to advance the paradigm of personalised medicine by (1) developing a personalised approach to supporting healthy behaviours in childhood to reduce obesity, and (2) using a multi-level framework to consider a broad range of contextual factors as potential determinants of an appropriately tailored treatment plan. In the context of childhood obesity, we draw on frameworks from health sciences to develop a multi-level understanding of the determinants of childhood obesity grounded in (1) self-determination theory, which helps articulate the role of competence, autonomy and relatedness in developing motivation, and (2) social cognitive theory, which posits that learning is a reciprocal interaction between individual, environment and behaviours. We also draw on theoretical frameworks from the learning sciences including (1) competency-based learning, which focuses on personalised instruction that supports learners in developing competency in specific skills, and (2) scales of practice, which speak to the need to make learning sustainable over time, socially relevant and geographically situated. In our work, we aim to understand the conceptual overlaps and distinguishing factors between these disciplines, illustrating the value of transdisciplinary approaches to address complex social problems.

Two of the most common theories used to explain variation in health practices that contribute to childhood obesity are Bandura’s social cognitive theory (Bandura 1977) and self-determination theory (Ryan &

Deci 2000). Bandura posits that a person's health practices are triadically and reciprocally influenced by social, cognitive and environmental factors. A central tenet of social cognitive theory is self-efficacy, where one of the main determinants of health is a person's confidence in their ability to enact health-related practices. As individuals build confidence and competence, they become more likely to sustainably engage in health-related practices (Davis et al. 2015). In self-determination theory people are thought to gain value through the development of competency, relatedness and autonomy. A theme common to both social cognitive theory and self-determination theory's explanation of health-related practices is competency. In other words, gaining competency in health-related practices is an important determinant in supporting sustainable health-related practices and the resultant benefits to health and psychological wellbeing.

Competency development is a longstanding area of focus in educational research. In the context of childhood obesity, competency-based learning theory frames individual gains in proficiency over health behaviours (e.g. diet and physical activity) as the gaining of competency over specific skills and knowledge relevant to the health behaviour in question. For decades, experts in learning theory have recognised that reducing variation in learning outcomes requires increasing variation in instruction (i.e. a personalised approach) (Bloom 1971). In 2007, Guskey elaborated on this approach, highlighting two specific components of this type of learning: (1) actionable feedback, correctives and enrichment, and (2) instructional alignment through the development of clear, attainable objectives (see Figure 1). This approach also allows for alteration of formative assessments depending on the nature of the learning objective, a degree of flexibility necessary for culturally tailoring of behaviour change interventions. Competency-based learning has proven particularly effective in advanced cognitive functions like problem solving,

which are important building blocks for effective behaviour change (Bandura 1986).

Figure 1 Personalised approach to learning, adapted from Guskey (2007).

However, we also recognise that for healthy practices to be consequential for participants they need to be sustainable over time, socially relevant and geographically situated. Therefore, our aim is to design learning opportunities that will be meaningful across scales of practice. Scales of practice refer to the ways that ideas, technologies and practices are taken up across geographic (local, national, international), temporal (historical, present, future) and social (family, community) trajectories (Jurow & Shea 2015; Nespor 1994; Tsing 2004). In our design for learning, we consider how to coordinate these scales of practice, asking how we can leverage participants' knowledge so as to support them in expanding their agency in creating healthy lives for their families. We thus conceptualise attaining competency in health-related behaviours as developing agency to navigate health-related decisions within contexts in which they arise.

By bringing these theoretical approaches together, we aim to develop a multi-level approach to promoting healthy childhood growth. Combating obesity means more than eat less and exercise more. In our work, we recognise that health determinants include both macro-level influences (e.g. neighbourhoods, family, social norms) and micro-level influences (e.g. genetics, epigenetics, satiety set points) (Huang et al. 2009). In our current project, we operationalise these health determinants by recognising the role of the built environment (e.g. limited access to healthy food, neighbourhoods without parks and footpaths), the material infrastructure (e.g. technology applications, fitness monitors), the ideational infrastructure (e.g. understanding nutritional needs) and the social infrastructure (e.g. immigration resulting in a small network of support) as key health determinants.

Research design

An enduring aim of learning research is to understand human activity in context and the resultant implications for the design and organisation of learning. In pursuit of generating more equitable research, we ask how can we design for learning and promote healthier lives in a manner that is consequential and relevant for participants? This leads to questions such as how do participants generate new and valued means of participating in the world, and for whom and under what circumstances can new practices be taken up, and how are they sustained? To answer these complex questions, we turn towards community-based approaches to studying learning in diverse settings (Bang et al. 2010; Hall & Jurow 2015). Generating research designs to support learning and healthy practices involves designing interventions with community members, foregrounding ideas and methods that are relevant to their everyday lives (Teeters & Jurow 2016).

The research study was developed by an interdisciplinary team in the Department of Pediatrics at a Medical Center at a university in the south of the United States. The research team dedicated to the focal project is interdisciplinary, bringing in expertise from paediatrics, community organising and the learning sciences. We drew on this diverse team to engage in recruitment efforts to draw in Spanish-speaking community members from throughout the metropolitan area surrounding the university. We leveraged the lab's existing relationship with local community centres to establish sites to implement our programming.

The goal of our research was not to create a *de novo* health intervention. Rather, our goal was to modify an existing intervention by developing a systematic and replicable approach to personalising the content of the intervention with sustainable behaviour change in mind. To this end, we used a previously tested and efficacious childhood obesity in-

tervention called *Salud con la Familia* (Healthier Families). *Salud con la Familia* was a multi-level family-based behavioural intervention implemented in community Parks and Recreation centres. In a randomised controlled trial of 106 parent-preschool child pairs, *Salud con la Familia* demonstrated reduction in paediatric obesity in a low-income minority population (Barkin et al. 2012). The intervention focused on the parent-preschool child pair, recognising both the importance of parents as agents of change for their children and the close relationship between parent behaviours and child behaviours. The intervention consisted of 12 weekly group-based sessions that taught principles of behaviour change (goal setting, self-monitoring and problem solving) around key content areas important for healthy childhood growth (diet, physical activity, sleep, media use and engaged parenting).

Our approach positioned participants as key informants, and thus afforded the research team the opportunity to learn with Latino community members about how to develop a community-based program to provide families with the skills to navigate environmental, material, ideational and social infrastructures so as to promote healthy childhood growth. With the previously mentioned theoretical frameworks in mind, our goal was to develop tools and conceptual models for operationalising participants' agency in navigating these systems, so as to be active agents within their social-ecological system, all in the service of supporting childhood health-related practices.

The development phase underwent four cycles of design, where analysis and iteration were embedded into each stage: (1) community interviews and conceptualisation, (2) pilot testing, (3) co-design, and (4) pilot iteration. The community interviews, conceptualisation and pilot testing were undertaken in the autumn of 2016 and the co-design and

follow-up sessions were conducted late in the winter of 2017.

Given our goal of mitigating health disparities, our research focused on a predominantly Latino lower income community. Developing an intervention to support participants in improving their health involves not just individuals and families, but also their support systems. Therefore, we drew upon existing social networks as a key recruitment strategy. The members of our research team had diverse cultural and ethnic backgrounds (Puerto Rican, White, Dominican, Mexican), as well as diverse professional expertise (paediatrician, community organiser, educator). We drew on our diverse expertise and positionalities, strategically leveraging existing social networks and co-membership (Erickson & Shultz 1982). Specifically, we leveraged relationships with colleagues working in libraries, community health clinics, immigrant coalitions and Parks and Recreation centres to use these sites to meet potential participants. Interviews, pilot sessions and focus groups were conducted in Spanish. After informed consent, IRB approved this study.

Our recruitment efforts resulted in partnering with 19 Spanish-speaking mothers between the ages of 19 and 58. Participants had between one and six children. One participant was a grandmother. Participants were all immigrants, from El Salvador, Ecuador, Honduras and Guatemala. Seventy-five per cent of the participants reported speaking and reading only in Spanish; 25 per cent reported speaking and reading in Spanish more than English; 50 per cent of participants reported thinking only in Spanish; 17 per cent reported thinking in Spanish more than English; and 33 per cent reported thinking in both equally. Participants self-reported that they regularly used technology. During our pilot, all participants used smart phones to access intervention resources, though the majority reported also having computers in their home.

Social

In our pilot sessions, participants reported that the social element of the sessions was extremely important and the most valued tool for learning. After the first pilot sessions, we asked participants in a short survey, 'what motivated you to come to these classes' (*¿Qué le motiva a venir a estas dos clases?*). For some participants 'the conviviality' (*la convivencia*) was the sole motivator. For others, improving the health of their kids and family was the motivating element. And for some, the social element was not a motivating factor. These participants reported being motivated to 'be healthy' (*estar saludable*), 'learn to choose and cook healthier [food]' (*Aprender a escoger y cocinar mas saludable*), 'to avoid many illnesses' (*a evitar muchas enfermedades*). However, when asked what their favourite element of the session was, over 80 per cent of participants included the social element as their favourite part of the healthy living classes: 'to socialize and learn' (*Convivir y aprender*); 'all of the topics covered and that which I learned from my peers' (*todos los puntos que se trataron ya que aprendí de las demás compañeras*); 'the communication' (*la comunicación*); 'the sharing of the experience' (*el compartir la experiencia*); 'I liked making friends' (*Me gustó que hicimos amistades*); 'I liked working as a group' (*Me gustó mucho trabajar como grupo*).

Participants' feedback that the social element of the classes was integral to their learning experience was similarly reflected in their responses captured via digital self-reflections. In a text-based survey that we sent out to help pilot participants self-evaluate, we asked: 'How do you feel about how your family is choosing healthy foods?' The response options were (1) I am starting to understand; (2) We can do it with help; (3) We can do it without help; and (4) We can do it and we can help other families. We intended this to be a scale. But when participants responded, over half selected both (2) and (4), indicating that, though they needed support, they could also support others in the

process. This response helped our team understand that the process of health behaviour change is both communal and non-linear. They did not perceive supporting others as an activity that would happen only once their confidence in executing healthy behaviours was solid. Rather, supporting their community was part of their learning process and a tool for increasing agency.

Our field notes from our sessions corroborate this finding that supporting others is a process, and not an outcome, of learning healthy behaviours. Participants engaged in shared problem solving and collective reflection. They listened to each other's experiences, validating them, affirming solidarity, and suggesting potential strategies to navigate the lived experiences of health. At the end of the pilot sessions, participants self-organised to exchange contact information, suggesting ideas such as group meals of healthy food and morning walking groups. This sense of community building was a leading tool for learning and could enable the sustainability of new practices. Participants' social support enabled them to navigate the constraints of the environment, by sharing rides, going to the gym together and creating safe places for gathering. Participants relied on each other and their social networks to develop new ways of using technology and material resources to engage in healthy practices. The social network was key to developing new practices that facilitated uptake of new ideas about healthy practices. From all these actions, we can see how the social infrastructure helped participants navigate the environmental, material and ideational systems so as to create sustainable healthy practices.

Discussion

Design Implications

In our interviews, pilot sessions and focus groups, we found that a key tool in supporting participants to develop new practices of healthy living involved building social in-

frastructure to support implementation of new ways of engaging with the built environment, as a motivator to use technological tools, and as a critical component in taking up new ideas and incorporating them into routine practice. For participants to navigate the built environment, they needed social networks to organise rides, to be motivated to engage in exercise and to feel comfortable in new places. We felt that technology could be a useful tool to empower participants to monitor their own progress, but its routine use would rely upon a responsive social infrastructure. We found that participants responded most consistently when they understood that facilitators used their responses on digital platforms to inform content and delivery of instructions. Participants reported that they learned the most from activities we developed that were based on their reflections on their goals. New ideas were most readily implemented and sustained when participants had social systems to hold them accountable and to support them with implementation.

To operationalise these findings, we developed a personalised health curriculum from the pilot that could prove responsive to participants' changing needs. The curriculum foregrounds social infrastructure as a key tool in supporting new ways of participating with environmental, material and ideational resources. The curriculum will be tested in a randomised control trial to test efficacy before considering implementation at scale.

To support participants in developing familiarity with the built environment, we will hold the program in local community recreation centres. We will teach participants how to navigate the fitness classes and amenities together, with each other and their children, so that they can collectively maximise their use of the recreation centres. To address participants' concerns that sessions be held in physical locations that are easy to access, safe

and welcoming, we will offer the program at community centres throughout the city, recruiting and assigning participants to sites that are conveniently located to their homes.

To support participants in using technical tools to monitor their goals, we will ensure that facilitators provide participants with timely feedback to support cultivating agency in this regard. This will involve responsive engagement with participants' self-reporting as well as scaffolded learning opportunities that provide multiple opportunities to revisit and understand content. The digital tool will not only ask about the participants' goals and progress towards achieving them, but also the resources they are using for support. This information can then be used by facilitators to identify areas requiring additional support. This feedback will then be used in the ensuing session as part of what we call a 'zoom-in'.

We developed the idea of 'zoom-ins' to provide participants with choice in the structure and content of the intervention. A 'zoom-in' is a segment of the class in which participants choose the focus, in order to 'zoom-in' on those areas where they would like extra support. Participants will determine the skills and concepts in which they would like additional support after analysing their personal goals, their progress, and their successes, challenges and obstacles. 'Zoom-ins' will provide the opportunity for participants to continue working on their goals as they achieve greater competency. They will also allow participants to work with one skill or concept via different activities and in different settings. Moreover, the 'zoom-ins' will leverage participants' shared expertise to collectively problem solve. We will dedicate sessions, which we refer to as intercessions, before and after each unit to revisit topics that have been hard to implement. The intercessions will be informed by participants' ongoing feedback and developed so as to promote collective problem solving and leverage participants' shared experiences. As demonstrated via the 'zoom-ins' and intercessions, our emerging curricu-

lar approach is dynamic; we identify key constructs that are proven to improve health outcomes, and then develop multiple ways to teach and reinforce those concepts as participants deem necessary. It is via such curricular decisions that we will operationalise the concept of agency within our intervention.

To attend to our finding that the social infrastructure plays a critical role in implementing healthy behaviour change, our intervention design will intentionally build the social system alongside each element of the healthy family program. Facilitators will leverage participants' histories, cultures and lived experiences via shared problem solving, group discussion, personalised goal setting and progress monitoring. Before and after each unit, we will plan for intercessions, where participants can revisit content that they continue to struggle to implement. These sessions will be organised so as to highlight the knowledge of the group, supporting participants in recognising their own agency to enact healthy behaviour change.

In our pilot sessions, we consistently found that taking up new ideas involved experiential learning of strategies as well as ongoing social support. Experiential learning refers to modelling strategies for incorporating healthy practices. Social support involves leveraging collective expertise and incorporating peer and facilitator feedback. Leveraging collective expertise was an important component of recognising participants' experiences, cultures and practices. Drawing on their experiences and learning from each other, all the while incorporating new concepts and techniques, allowed for healthy practices to be grounded in existing practices, making the process of healthy living more sustainable.

Implications for Theory

In our work, we draw on theories from both public health and learning sciences. Public health recognises the complexity of behaviour change and thus we have developed models of behaviour change that account for the multiple levels, or scales, on which prac-

tices are enacted. By drawing on learning sciences, we further situate human action in the social world, casting learning as an aspect of a learner's participation within a culturally and historically situated community of practice. We expand on social cognitive theory by including material resources on social, cognitive (what we refer to as ideational or conceptual) and environmental factors. Our work suggests that, while health is influenced by these factors, changing health practices requires attention to coordination between influencers. For example, if people acquire new ideas regarding health but do not have access to healthy foods, they cannot enact change. Similarly, if an individual acquires new concepts and skills regarding health but does not have the support of their family, enacting change is extremely difficult. As individuals and communities acquire new concepts and skills, they need the context in which to enact change. Therefore, behaviour change has to be thought of as the acquiring of new practices within changing communities of practice (Lave 2012). Consequently, health interventions require attention not only to new practices, but to the configured world in which the participants can enact those new practices.

Moreover, our initial findings expand, and even challenge, notions of competency-based learning. In our findings, we maintain that attaining competency is integral to enacting healthy behaviour change. However, we recognise that achieving competency is neither discrete nor linear. That is, there is not a clear map to competency. As we observed when we asked participants to identify their competency in health-related behaviours, they reported not having high confidence in enacting those skills, yet having high confidence in supporting others. This suggests that there is not a clear trajectory for a skill to be acquired, improved and then shared, but rather a messy process that involves access to resources (e.g. time, healthy food, walking

paths) and community support. Health-related choices involve complex and competing decisions. Moreover, our analysis suggests that competency is not a discrete point; rather, participants may attain competency in a concept or skill, their social, environmental or material resources may then shift, and thus their relationship to competency. As we focus on the scales of practice in which healthy behaviours are enacted, it becomes essential that participants not only have the conceptual resources, but also the ability to enact their knowledge and skills so as to navigate the complicated systems in which they live. Thus, rather than foregrounding competency as the desired aim, we expanded this notion to focus on agency. Our aim has thus become to support participants in attaining a sense of agency to enact change and to recognise the components necessary for sustainability. This pivot from competency to agency is fundamental. By centralising agency, we centre the participant's ability to navigate the world in which they live and identify participants as central agents in control of their own health outcomes.

Conclusion

Preventing diseases is not and cannot be understood as a one-size-fits-all approach. Generating healthier communities necessitates culturally responsive approaches that leverage the assets of culturally and linguistically diverse communities, all the while recognising the institutional challenges surrounding access to health-related resources. Supporting individuals and families in becoming healthier involves generating tailored plans that allow them to increase their agency in navigating the environmental, material, ideational and social contexts that influence health. We recognise the institutional and structural components of health and acknowledge the need for systemic changes. However, we also posit that, as we push to reform structural issues, community-based

health programs can enhance health outcomes through supporting individuals and communities to increase their agency in navigating their social and built environment. In our study, we found that enhancing commu-

nity members' agency to navigate the world of health fundamentally relied upon building a social infrastructure that could support the enactment of healthy behaviours.

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Community-engaged Research of Social Determinants of Health

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Abstract

The health of adolescents, perhaps more than in any other period of their life, is shaped by the social determinants of health (SDH). The constellation of SDH that disadvantages a specific group's health may also make members of that population unable or unwilling to engage in health research. To build a comprehensive body of knowledge about how SDH operate within a specific social context, researchers must design studies that take into account how various vulnerabilities and oppressions may affect people's experiences of being recruited, interviewed and retained in a study. In 2014, we initiated a prospective cohort study with Latino youth living in the agricultural area of Salinas, California. We began this study with the understanding that it was imperative to develop methodological strategies that actively addressed potential challenges in ways that were culturally responsive, community engaged and inclusive. In this article, we describe our approach to developing best practices in four key areas: 1) building community partnerships and engagement; 2) consideration of staffing and staff support; 3) engaging youth's perspectives; and 4) developing culturally appropriate research protocols. In our sample of 599 participants, nearly all youth identify as Latinx (94 per cent), half (49 per cent) have at least one parent employed as a farmworker, 60 per cent reside in crowded housing conditions, and 42 per cent have mothers who did not complete high school. Given these multiple vulnerabilities, we view a robust number of youth expressing interest in study participation, the willingness of their parents to permit their children to be enrolled, and the achievement of an ambitious sample target as evidence that our efforts to undertake best practices in community-engaged and inclusive research were well received.

Keywords: *community engagement, Latino youth, rural environment, social determinants of health, cohort.*

Introduction

Groups of people who are systemically marginalised within a society have poorer health outcomes than those who have access to safe living conditions, non-hazardous work, a living wage, and educational, health and social welfare institutions (Wilkinson & Marmot 2003). These types of resources are frequently considered to be ‘social determinants of health’ (SDH), a term that broadly encompasses ‘the conditions in which people are born, grow, develop, live, work, and age’ (Viner et al. 2012). Importantly, the constellation of SDH that disadvantages a specific group’s health may also make its members unable or unwilling to engage in research: residential mobility, fear of arrest, non-comprehension of a national language, or a lack of transportation can all be barriers to optimal health and to research participation (George, Duran & Norris 2014). This has the potential to more deeply entrench health inequities as populations that go unstudied cannot benefit from interventions, treatments and services tailored to their needs (Dodgson & Struthers 2005; Wilson & Neville 2009).

To build a comprehensive body of knowledge about how SDH operate within a specific social context, researchers must begin by considering how various vulnerabilities and oppressions may affect people’s experiences of being recruited, interviewed and retained in a study. For example, members of a population that have suffered threats of deportation may be wary of interacting with people from outside their community and thus be challenging to reach through standard recruitment and retention channels (Teedon et al. 2015). Likewise, a longstanding history of exploitation of low-resource communities by researchers who were not members of those communities could be another barrier to people’s willingness to participate (Cacari-Stone et al. 2014; Sudhinaraset et al. 2017) Wallerstein et al. 2014, Sudhinaraset, Ling et al. 2017. Such exploitation by outsiders can have a negative impact that reverberates far beyond the research study itself. For example, the disclosure of the infa-

mous Tuskegee Study of Untreated Syphilis in the Negro Male, conducted by the United States Health Service from 1932 to 1972, has been found to be correlated with ‘increases in medical mistrust and mortality and decreases in both outpatient and inpatient physician interactions for older black men’ (Alsan & Wanamaker 2018). A local population’s sense of distrust or wariness about exploitation can also arise in the context of community-based organisations if they are perceived as being overly accountable to political funding sources or other outside interests (Marwell 2004).

If populations underrepresented in research choose to enrol in a study, research or survey questions developed for mainstream populations may not resonate with them or adequately allow for their experiences, which may lead to discomfort, frustration or distress, as well as a perception among community members that research is unhelpful. A lack of consonance between a population and the questions being asked also could result in incomplete or poor quality data, and potentially an investment of funds in research that yields few results of interest or improvements in population health. Under these circumstances, the risk of further stigmatisation and negative labelling of communities through the research process is all too real, and a problem-based approach can create a pathologising lens for researchers that obfuscates the strengths of communities.

In this article, we discuss the A Crecer (‘To Grow’) study, which examines SDH among Latino youth living in an agricultural community. We undertook this study with the knowledge that factors which potentially make these youth vulnerable to poor health outcomes may also pose specific challenges to enrolling them as research participants. We therefore understood that it was imperative from the outset of the study to develop methodological strategies that actively addressed these challenges in ways that were culturally responsive, community engaged and inclusive. As we set ourselves to

this task, we interpolated our own identities in order to be reflexive about how members of this community would see us as 'outsiders', or different from them, as well as our shared experiences and commonalities. Within this article's authorship team (hereafter referred to as 'our team'), which was responsible for the design and leadership of the study, two of us identify as Mexican American and two as children of immigrants. Some of our families struggled to make ends meet during our childhoods, including by working in the agricultural field economy, while others of us had the privilege of financial security. Prior to attending college, a few of us lived in neighbourhoods or attended schools that experienced elevated levels of teen pregnancy and violence. None of us grew up in the community where we conducted our research, although one author has lived and worked there for over 30 years and another was raised in a similar community in California.

In designing our approach, we understood that the youth we sought to enrol in our study and their families would consider us to be outsiders, and therefore our methodological strategies needed to address issues of building trust and rapport. With this in mind, we generated a series of questions about best practices for conducting research with rural Latino youth that shaped our research development and implementation: (1) How can we best develop and strengthen community relationships and community engagement in the research? (2) What considerations are important when staffing our study, and how can we best support staff to do this work? (3) How can we engage youth's perspectives in this study? (4) How can we develop culturally appropriate research protocols?

Below we present the methodological strategies developed in response to these

Extensive training in research methods was provided to the A Crecer research staff. In-person sessions facilitated by San Francisco-based staff were valuable not only in terms of building capacity and skills among the

newly hired junior members, but also in providing opportunities for the junior members to share knowledge about youth in Salinas with the more senior members, and for team bonding. Trainings included topics such as ethics and adherence to Institutional Review Board protocols; effective recruitment techniques; quantitative interview administration; in-depth qualitative interviewing; adolescent development and health issues; SDH research; and how to provide facilitated referrals for distressed participants. Several presentations of local public health data by Monterey County Health Department staff strengthened knowledge of adolescent health inequities. Trainings were ongoing and responsive to the needs of the junior research staff. For example, when staff members remarked that numerous participants were worried about firearm incidents that had taken place in town, an adolescent health physician from the research team (Marissa Raymond-Flesch) conducted a session on techniques for supporting youth exposed to violence and self-care for staff working with vulnerable youth.

Incorporating youth's perspectives

The question, How can we engage youth's perspectives in this study?, has been central to A Crecer from its inception. As a means of learning about youth's perspectives early in the study, we convened eight focus groups with youth recruited from participating middle schools as well as from Salinas youth leadership programs. (Findings from these focus groups have been published elsewhere; see Raymond-Flesch et al. 2017) Recruitment for these groups was conducted using strategies developed with input from the Principal or Vice-Principal at each school, as well as the CAB. Information sessions, held on campus at lunch, offered students an opportunity to learn about A Crecer, sign up for a focus group and talk informally with members of the research staff.

To secure parental support for the focus groups, we solicited input from local implementers of family-based prevention programs and met directly with parents during regularly scheduled parent meetings at each of the middle schools where the focus group recruitment was to be conducted. At each parent group, the study staff introduced A Crecer and its objectives; modelled a focus group discussion with the parents, having them role play the activities that would be conducted with participants during the group; discussed parent permission approaches; solicited input on what parents saw as the greatest needs for youth in the community; and offered an interactive educational session on adolescent health issues at a future date. These presentations were either bilingual or conducted in Spanish. Each presentation was led by one member of the San Francisco-based team or the local Co-I and a bilingual and bicultural field coordinator who was from the Salinas community.

A total of 42 youth participated in the eight focus groups, which followed an innovative structure. Rather than posing questions to the entire group, youth were engaged in a series of activities aimed at generating conversation. In the first activity, participants used stickers to rank their relative agreement or disagreement with statements about family, gender and relationships (e.g. 'It is very important for a guy to get respect from others', 'A woman must be a source of strength for her family'). They were then encouraged to discuss why and how strongly they agreed or disagreed with each statement. In the second activity, participants drew maps of their community, with prompts to include their home, school, recreational areas and transportation methods, and to indicate places where they felt safe and unsafe. Participants then presented their maps to the group, indicating points of interest and providing further details (see Figure 2).

Our final best practices question, How can we develop culturally appropriate research protocols?, is of utmost importance to our team. We aim to conduct rigorous research that will yield knowledge that is useful and actionable to those directly concerned with the health and wellbeing of youth in Sa-

linas and similar agricultural areas. It is therefore tremendously important that youth and their parents feel comfortable with, and preferably enthusiastic about, participation in the study. To this end, the A Crecer team actively solicited and incorporated information regarding local culture, terminology and norms to inform recruitment and interviewing procedures for the cohort study. We drew heavily on the knowledge and insights of the Salinas-based staff members, led by the Project Coordinator, particularly regarding how to best approach youth and their parents about study participation. Staff framed the study as exploring 'what it is like to be a teen in Salinas', and encouraged students to consider participating as a way to 'share your voice' and contribute to the community. The staff also noticed that peer leaders could quickly set the tone for whether youth would express interest in study participation, and they consciously adopted strategies of 'matching the tone' of exuberant students, generating a sense of shared enthusiasm, while also telling students that they could join the study with friends and come to interview appointments together. As recruitment proceeded, the staff noted that they had developed ways of adjusting recruitment to different environments (schoolyards vs classrooms), groups ('popular' kids as compared to quieter youth who kept to themselves) and even schools (noting that students in some schools wanted many details about participation, whereas in others the main focus was on concerns about confidentiality).

Early on in their recruiting, the Salinas-based staff discerned that both youth and their parents had concerns about what was meant by a 'research interview'. Realising that many people think of an interview in terms of what is seen on television news or talk shows, the staff began proactively explaining the quantitative interview more concretely. For example, they described the survey as 'multiple choice' and reiterated that youth could skip any questions they did not want to answer. They also specified that the answers were entered directly into a computer, which youth and parents alike found reassuring, often telling staff that they had been concerned that youth would be asked to write

down responses. These explanations also helped parents understand A Crecer as a research study, as opposed to an after-school program. In addition, the staff learned that parents were sometimes hesitant to enrol their children in A Crecer because they feared negative consequences for their child if they were unable to bring him or her to an interview appointment. The staff therefore made sure to explain to parents that children were never penalised for missing appointments. They also clarified that parents did not need to stay on site during the interview, recognising that many parents had multiple responsibilities and could not spare the time to wait. These efforts to assuage parents' concerns yielded not only higher numbers of enrolled study participants, but also a sense of pride among students and their parents who began to see study participation as a way of contributing to the community and benefiting youth. Building on this perspective, we partnered with local school officials to arrange for youth to receive community service hours for their participation in A Crecer.

Focus group findings also informed procedures for recruitment and obtaining parent permission for the cohort study. Based on parent feedback obtained through recruitment for the focus groups, the staff developed a telephone-based verbal parent permission process that ensured parents had opportunities to talk privately by phone and also to meet staff in person, either at our study office or at one of the five community-based interview locations, in advance of having their child enrol in the study. Concerns about literacy were also raised by youth during the focus groups, which confirmed our decision to use audio computer-assisted self-interviewing (ACASI) for the more sensitive questions, and staff emphasised during recruitment that youth were not required to read or write on their own in order to participate. Finally, we made use of multiple opportunities to build legitimacy within the community. For example, on two occasions, Salin-

as-based staff members were interviewed by a teen-led youth radio show that aired on a bilingual radio station as a means of raising awareness about the study and demonstrating engagement with the community.

Discussion

When conducting studies on SDH in communities that experience inequalities and marginalisation, researchers must be mindful of how the same conditions that may shape health disparities may also affect whether and how community members engage with research. We take A Crecer's ability to engage parents and school partners, achieve enrolment targets and sustain high retention to date as indicators that our approach has been successful, not only by research but also by community standards.

Importantly, this engagement has also helped us to ensure that our research focus is well aligned with parents' and youth's priorities and community objectives regarding the promotion of adolescent wellbeing. While A Crecer brings attention to challenges faced by youth in Salinas and an evidence base for tailored solutions to address these challenges, the study team has been cognisant of the potential for reinforcing a negative image of Salinas through the study findings. In focusing research on two of the most pressing public health problems facing Salinas teens (teen pregnancy and risk of violence), we have strived to also acknowledge the importance of understanding resilience among adolescents who are engaged in school, volunteer in a community to which they feel attached and are connected to families with whom they share strong bonds. It has been a priority of the A Crecer team to be vigilant about slipping into a problem-based characterisation of 'at-risk' youth in a disadvantaged community, and instead choosing to align with a growing movement to investigate what helps a community thrive, building on the strengths of its

residents and a proud cultural heritage. Collaboratively, the research team has challenged itself to incorporate protective factors such as school connectedness, resilience and a future orientation towards the measures of influences that lead to a positive trajectory. This focus grew naturally out of the strong community-research linkages forged by intentional community engagement during the formative stages of the study. This more balanced approach respects and nurtures growing community pride and has been welcomed by CAB members, YAB members and local stakeholders.

Our team is fully committed to the approach described in this article. We recognise that such engagement requires time, resources and a willingness of all parties to listen, be transparent and remain open-minded. It has been important – and meaningful – in A Crecer for the San Francisco-based researchers to spend entire days in Salinas in an effort to better understand the context in which the study takes place, meet face to face with community partners and problem-solve on site with the local staff. Likewise, the Salinas-based research staff have worked evenings and weekends in order to maximise their ability to connect with parents, teachers and other community members, shared their observations and experiences in order to inform the aspects of the research that can be adapted to the local culture, and maintained the research protocols that need to be standardised with equanimity and good humour. Within a study that focuses on rural Latino youth, many of whom contend with immigration, acculturation, poverty and other issues that could potentially affect health outcomes, such efforts to create community-level trust and buy-in are key conditions for the production of high-quality data that can be used to support resources, solutions and paths forward.

Conclusion

Work that will meaningfully affect SDH must be conducted in ways that not only acknowledge community challenges but also recognise and build upon resilience. Taking this approach promotes a growing communi-

ty awareness of the barriers resulting from SDH and the drive to address these factors to further the development of a safe and thriving community. In the case of our research with rural Latino youth, building in the active participation of the actors in charge of the settings where adolescents live, such as educators and parents, was crucial. Indeed, developing these community partnerships and working to maintain them through accountability and transparency helped expand the reach of our study to a greater number of residents, thereby promoting community engagement and expediting participant recruitment. Likewise, we found that by engaging local opinion leaders – including youth – early in the research process, support for the study spread through multiple channels, minimising the barriers that could have arisen for community members who feel wary of outsiders and instead prompting parents to come forward and enrol their children in what was perceived as a positive community-focused activity.

Despite their importance, building community partnerships and providing avenues to hear the voices of a study population is not sufficient. In order for research among vulnerable groups to be as relevant and ethical as possible, community perspectives and expertise must be deeply integrated into the study itself. Two channels for this are research staff and protocols, the heart and soul of a study. By hiring young people from the local community and valuing and building their knowledge, we hope not only to improve the quality of our current work, but also to help train the next generation of scholars. Similarly, by designing protocols that are culturally appropriate and respectful, we aim to broaden the community's understanding of research, degree of comfort engaging with it, and expectations that it should lead to solutions that will be feasible and effective. In working towards these goals, we hope that A Crecer will live up to its namesake by providing opportunities not only to learn, but for all of us involved – youth, community and researchers – to grow.

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Emergence Theory-Based Curriculum to Teach Compromise Skills to Students

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Abstract

This study addresses the compromise skills that are taught to students diagnosed with autistic spectrum disorders (ASD) and related social and communication deficits. A private school in the southeastern United States implemented an emergence theory-based curriculum to address these skills, yet no formal analysis was conducted to determine its effectiveness. Guided by cognitive development and constructivist theories, a concurrent, mixed methods, case study design was used to investigate the impact of this curriculum on teaching compromise skills to middle school students with ASD and related deficits. For the qualitative sequence, teacher observations and compromise interventions from eight participants were open coded and analyzed thematically. The frequency of each thematic occurrence was analyzed using descriptive statistics. For the quantitative sequence, an ANCOVA and descriptive statistics were used to analyze posttest scores between a treatment group that used emergence theory-based curriculum and a control group, while controlling for pretest scores. Three most frequently occurring themes emerged regarding teachers' need (a) to understand the cognitive deficits exhibited by students, (b) for further instruction in emergence theory-based curriculum, and (c) for opportunities to plan lessons together using emergence theory. Moreover, the ANCOVA revealed a significant interaction between the pretest scores and the curriculum used. This study indicated that importance for remediating cognitive deficits related to compromise within the population of students with ASD and improving educator understanding and success in working with this student population.

Keywords: autistic spectrum disorders, emergence theory-based curriculum, teaching compromise skills, ASD Compromise, emergence theory

Introduction

Despite the many successes, community-based practitioners involved in CCE have

faced a number of challenges. While community groups typically enter into research relationships being promised mutually beneficial outcomes, studies show that academics and their institutions often benefit far more from these kinds of partnerships (Alcantara et al. 2015; Bortolin 2011; Cronley, Madden & Davis 2015). For community partners, barriers to participating in CCE can include limited time and resources to fully engage (Keyte 2014; Lantz et al. 2001), minimal support for building and maintaining partnerships (Dorow, Stack-Cutler & Varnhagen 2011; Petri 2015; Sandy & Holland 2006), power imbalances (Schwartz et al. 2016), lack of trust (Lantz et al. 2001; Petri 2015) and high levels of staff and volunteer turnover (Keyte 2014; Schwartz et al. 2016; Van Devanter et al. 2011). Despite recognition of these challenges, institutional structures are typically designed to support academics (Cronley, Madden & Davis 2015; Dempsey 2010; Ward & Wolf-Wendel 2000). Studies have also identified significant barriers faced by academics when participating in CCE, including having limited time and resources and being discouraged from community-engaged pedagogies through tenure and promotion structures (Levkoe, Brial & Danier 2014). While most responses tend to occur on a case-by-case basis, some have called for more institutionalised and sustained support mechanisms (Chen 2013; Dorow, Stack-Cutler & Varnhagen, 2011).

CCE brokers have emerged as one response to these challenges. In this article, we broadly describe brokering initiatives as coordinating mechanisms that act as intermediaries between community-based organisations and academic institutions with an aim to develop collaborative and sustainable partnerships. A broker is an individual or organisation that helps connect and support relationships and share knowledge. While many different forms of brokering initiatives have emerged, there has been little synthesis or analysis on the various features of these initiatives that contribute to successful partnerships. Most brokering initiatives share a common goal of fostering relationships be-

tween community and campus partners; yet, they tend to be heterogeneous in their motivations, mandates, organisational structures, target groups, activities, and the sectors they serve. Because brokering initiatives differ on so many dimensions, it is necessary to consider their similarities and differences and assess which elements may be valuable for a particular type of CCE.

In this article, we present a framework for comparative analysis that identifies the different features, roles and activities of CCE brokering initiatives. This framework provides an analytical tool for academics and community-based practitioners to reflect on how the different characteristics of brokering initiatives may contribute to successful CCE partnerships. We begin by summarising the relevant literature, describing key features of CCE brokers, their different functions, and the various factors for success and challenges they face.

Describing and differentiating CCE brokering initiatives

Brokering initiatives aim to support participants at different stages of a partnership and vary depending on their structures, targeted populations and specific activities. Experiences of CCE tend to be context-specific and a CCE broker's role is dependent on the specific project and the needs and assets of each partner. Brokering initiatives must also be flexible and open to change depending on the phase of the relationship. Tennyson (2005) identified three key differences, which provide a basis for understanding how brokering initiatives work within one of the partnering organisations and taking responsibility for preparing and conditioning the different actors, representing the organisation for the duration of the partnership, and managing various aspects of the collaboration. Internal brokers bring together relevant partners but may also share in decision-making throughout a project. These functions can be compared to those of external brokers who may be contracted by the partners to set up agreements, build capacity, and/or maintain and track ongoing effectiveness. External brokers support partners and equip them

with tools to ensure the project is moving forward, but tend to take on little, if any, decision-making responsibility. Second, a broker can be an individual or a team working within or outside one of the partner organisations and tasked with building relationships on behalf of the organisation.

Third, proactive brokers initiate and build partnerships, while reactive brokers coordinate partnerships or implement decisions on an organisation's behalf. While some CCE brokers play a key role in developing a partnership, others support a partnership after its initiation. The three differences identified by Tennyson demonstrate that brokers can take on many roles, depending on the particular partners' needs.

Besides recognising the many differences, Tennyson and Baksi (2016) point to a series of common roles and activities among brokers. These include supporting partners throughout the phases in the partnership cycle from scoping and building (e.g. providing outreach and opportunities to engage, managing expectations), managing and maintaining (e.g. facilitating dialogue and governance arrangements, problem-solving), reviewing and revising (e.g. establishing and implementing an ongoing evaluation plan, supporting changes to the partnership) to sustaining outcomes (e.g. knowledge mobilisation, celebrating achievements, managing closure/next steps). Given the variation in the needs of partners and partnership phases, brokers are likely to take on many roles within and across projects, developing a suite of skills to support and benefit partnerships. While some brokering initiatives take on a single role across community-campus partnerships, such as making an initial connection between two partners, others assume a combination of roles, supporting partners throughout the life of a project.

Specific to community-campus projects, CCE brokers act as an intermediary between

community-based organisations and academic institutions. They have been shown to support community and academic partners in designing and implementing a project, establishing initial connections, delivering skills training, problem-solving, supervising students' community-engaged research and learning activities, evaluating a project's impact, and using results to improve future programs while contributing to positive changes in communities (Keating & Sjoquist 2000; Phipps, Johnny & Wedlock 2015; Tennyson 2014). CCE brokers have also promoted learnings and insights, and addressed concerns of power and resource imbalance by ensuring community and campus partners share control equitably (Keating & Sjoquist 2000; Phipps, Johnny & Wedlock 2015). In addition, because community organisations and universities face high levels of personnel turnover, CCE brokers can help by sustaining a project over the long term (Keating & Sjoquist 2000). To avoid leaving community-based organisations with unfinished projects, CCE brokers can help overcome constraints of an academic schedule by continuing to complete tasks after the end of a term.

In particular, brokering initiatives can be an accessible and responsive point of contact (Keating & Sjoquist 2000). For example, community-based organisations have expressed interest in having platforms to share research needs and interests, connect with academics and learn about opportunities for professional development (Dorow, Stack-Cutler & Varnhagen 2011; Tryon & Stoecker 2008). Brokering initiatives use physical platforms that include providing accessible office space and community workspaces, and staging events that bring partners and other stakeholders together. They also use virtual platforms such as websites, forums and matchmaking databases to bring diverse partners together to share ideas and

information, especially when they are not in the same place. Lacking, however, is an understanding of how these different activities meet partners' needs and the opportunities and limitations faced by CCE brokers when developing collaborations.

Factors for success and challenges of brokering initiatives

In this section, we draw on the existing scholarly literature to highlight factors for success and challenges in initiating and maintaining brokering initiatives and CCE partnerships.

Factors for Success

During the early stages of developing a brokering initiative, significant planning and investment is required (Tryon & Ross 2012). To improve the chances for success when setting up a brokering initiative, Pauzé and Level 8 Leadership Institute (2013) stressed the importance of first identifying the goals of the brokering initiative and then selecting a governance structure accordingly. Further, studies have found that brokering initiatives can benefit from having more formalised administrative infrastructure (Keating & Sjoquist 2000), a clear definition of their relationship with partnerships (Tennyson 2005), established guidelines and tools to address partners' needs (Phipps, Johnny & Wedlock 2015) and flexibility in providing long-term support (Dorow, Stack-Cutler & Varnhagen 2011).

CCE brokers must also give significant

There are several pitfalls that can affect the success of brokering initiatives. One common challenge occurs when CCE brokers fail to find the right balance between directing the partnership and letting the partners lead. If brokers hold too tightly to their own ideas, it can be detrimental to the partnership (Partnership Brokers Association 2012). Thus, it is important for CCE brokers to know when to step back (Evans & McClinton-Brown 2016).

Another common challenge for CCE brokers is having to navigate project partners' perceptions and assumptions of research in general, and those of brokers in particular. For instance, while internal brokers may be

well-informed and have experience working through organisational issues, partners may perceive them as biased in favour of their own organisation's way of operating and reluctant to accept new ideas. External brokers can be impartial to organisational politics, while partners may view them as being too distant and less committed when difficulties arise (Tennyson 2005). Because CCE brokers can be situated within or outside a partnership or community, they must proactively address partners' concerns.

Limited resources or a lack of core funding can also challenge the ability of a broker to provide useful services to sustain partnerships and projects (Naqshbandi et al. 2011). Without consistent funding sources, CCE brokers tend to devote significant effort towards grant writing (Baquet 2012; Keating & Sjoquist 2000). Keating and Sjoquist (2000, pp. 155–156) found that, in some instances, 'the choice of projects that are undertaken is largely determined by whatever kinds of projects are popular with funding agencies. The needs of communities can be overlooked if they do not require the kinds of projects that funding agencies are willing to underwrite.' The reluctance of academic and community participants to participate in time-consuming projects that do not yield outputs that are directly beneficial (e.g. publications, funding, policy change) can challenge CCE brokers. When project partners feel overburdened by excessive meetings, participation and enthusiasm within community advisory committees has been found to decrease (Keating & Sjoquist 2000). Of note, just as community and academic partners interested in CCE struggle to find sufficient resources, brokers too are not immune to these challenges.

Despite the valuable insights generated in the literature thus far, limited documentation exists about the specific role CCE brokers play and ways they can establish and maintain more mutually beneficial partnerships. In response, we present an analytical framework to articulate the potential contributions of brokering initiatives to community-campus partnerships. We reflect on learnings from our review, highlight the opportunities and

limitations of our analytical framework, and provide suggestions for future research and practice.

A review of community-campus brokering initiatives

The purpose of this review was to examine a sample of brokering initiatives, evaluate the commonalities and differences, and gain a better understanding of their contributions to successful community-campus partnerships. The initial research for this article was completed as part of the Community First: Impacts of Community Engagement Research partnership (CFICE; see <https://carleton.ca/communityfirst/>). We began by compiling a list of brokering initiatives through online searches of community organisations and academic institutions. Search terms included 'broker' and 'brokerage' by themselves and each combined with 'partnership', 'community-university partnership', 'community-campus partnership', 'community-based research', 'community-engaged research', and 'community-driven'. From our search, we selected brokering initiatives that fell within our broad definition presented in the introduction to this article.

A framework for analysis

The brokering initiatives we reviewed revealed a range of services, focusing on a variety of partners and thematic areas. In considering the commonalities and differences, we identified variation in two key areas. First, from examining the different attributes by identifying affiliation, principle purpose and who received the primary benefit, and comparing this information, we generated five separate categories that delineate the basic structural allegiance of each brokering initiative: (1) community-based, (2) university-based, (3) community-university-based, (4) resource-based, and (5) brokering networks. Second, we classified brokering initiatives into four key dimensions that consider the kinds of activities being undertaken. The-

We shared an initial list with a number of academics and community-based practitioners involved in CCE work to ensure accuracy and identify additional brokering initiatives we may have missed. From our review, we selected a sample of 23 different brokering initiatives within Canada, the US and the UK. While the brokering initiatives we reviewed varied significantly, the key criterion for inclusion in this study was that each brokering initiative's mandate was to initiate and/or maintain partnerships between community and academic partners for the purpose of community-engaged teaching and research. For each initiative, we developed a profile, which included information gathered from websites and in some cases informal discussions with staff to obtain detailed descriptions of their work. Using cross-case analysis (Patton 2015), we categorised the information about each brokering initiative and established a classification system. After analysing the 23 brokering initiatives, we discontinued our search for new examples because we were no longer finding new information or codes to add to the dataset (Fusch & Ness 2015).

se categories include (1) level of engagement, (2) type of platform, (3) scale of activities, and (4) area of focus. We then describe the categories within the analytical framework in which to situate different brokering initiatives. Following this description, we highlight ways this framework might be used to help inform decisions about the establishment, development and long-term sustainability of brokering initiatives.

Part 1: Structural Allegiance

Table 1 provides a description of each of the five categories of structural allegiance to indicate who CCE brokers are, what they do and the impact of their work, together with examples of the different brokering initiatives we reviewed.

Community-based brokering initiatives are rooted in communities and their primary purpose is to provide opportunities for community organisations to collaborate with academics and/or professional researchers on projects that address community objectives. The initiatives we reviewed worked with individuals and organisations in the public, private and/or non-profit sectors to accomplish a range of tasks, such as defining research questions and developing proposals, making initial connections with potential academics and other research partners, managing community-driven research projects, and providing training and mentoring in community-based research for all participants involved. Brokers pay particular attention to each community's needs and work to ensure the community's priorities drive the project. Brokers work with partners to make sure knowledge is co-created and projects are action-oriented, meaning that partners can use findings to make positive changes within their communities. Brokers build the capacity of community partners and community members by collaboratively developing training opportunities and resources. Stakeholders often include staff members and volunteers from community-based organisations, community residents, marginalised groups, academic institutions and government ministries.

One example of a community-based brokering initiative is the Centre for Community Based Research (www.communitybasedresearch.ca/). Located in Waterloo, Canada, it is an independent non-profit organisation which aims to promote collaborative approaches to the co-production of knowledge and innovative solutions to community needs. The Centre is committed to social justice and employs community researchers with insider perspectives. It uses a participatory and action-oriented approach, bringing people together with diverse expertise to contribute to positive community change. A second example is Vibrant Communities Canada (<http://www.vibrantcanada.ca/>) which engages a pan-Canadian audience to connect people, organisations, businesses and government to reduce poverty in Canada. Their

efforts are community-driven and focus on supporting solutions to reducing poverty. Members connect through in-person events and online opportunities, including joining discussion groups or learning communities, contributing blog posts and searching member profiles.

University-based brokering initiatives typically aim to encourage the university population to engage in CCE through training, partnership matching, funding and ongoing support. These kinds of models may support initiatives such as science shops, service-learning courses, community-based research projects and community outreach services. Many of them also offer support for community-based organisations working with academics by providing a range of services such as facilitating initial connections and partnership development, and offering templates for partnership agreements, financial and human resources and troubleshooting on an ongoing basis. Academic institutions typically house and fund university-based brokers to meet institutional needs. While community partners play an important role in projects working with academic faculty or students, a key purpose of these brokering initiatives is to ensure academics have opportunities to conduct research and learn within community organisations.

The Community Engaged Scholarship Institute (www.cesinstitute.ca/) is one example of a university-based brokering initiative. It is located in Guelph, Canada, and acts as a hub for engaged scholarship within the University of Guelph and the broader community. Staff members work with faculty members and students, community-based organisations and government, building capacity for participation in community engagement and social innovation projects. The Institute leverages resources, builds and maintains partnerships, and addresses obstacles to participating in community-engaged research. Another example is University-Community Partnerships (<http://ucp.msu.edu/>). Located in East Lansing, US, it provides a range of services for developing research networks among campus partners at Michigan State University and community partners. Staff match university partners interested in working with a com-

munity group or partner on a grant proposal or maintaining a long-term campus partnership with a community group. University-Community Partnerships balances university and community needs and priorities, promoting projects that provide mutual benefits for all partners, build capacity in communities and encourage long-term partnerships within research networks.

As a hybrid of the previous two categories, community-university-based brokering initiatives are often managed by a team of academic staff, students and/or faculty, as well as community-based organisational representatives. Initiatives in this category are typically driven by both community and academic partners, although it is common to see explicit reference towards prioritising community objectives and goals. These types of brokering initiatives typically operate using a mix of resources from postsecondary institutions and external grant funding.

An example of a community-university-based brokering initiative is the Helpdesk of the Community University Partnership Programme (www.brighton.ac.uk/business-services/community-partnerships/index.aspx), housed at the University of Brighton in the UK. The Helpdesk's work is community-driven and collaborative, with an emphasis on ensuring that community and academic partners are able to build equitable relationships and gain mutual benefit (Rodriguez & Millican 2007). It acts as a gateway to the university for both representatives from community-based organisations enquiring about funding for starting up a research project and faculty members who might have relevant research interest in collaborating on a project; and as a contact point for university staff and students interested in making contact with community-based organisations for collaborative research and teaching purposes. Initiated through philanthropic seed funding, the Helpdesk currently receives the majority of its funding through its university host. Another example is the

Trent Community Research Centre (www.trentcentre.ca/) located in Peterborough, Canada. The Centre is community-based, with project proposals prioritising community needs coming from community-based organisations. Brokers match Trent University students seeking to engage in community-based projects as volunteers or to fulfil part of their course work with community partners to conduct community-based research projects. They ensure that community partners' priorities drive the project, as well as supporting the university students throughout the project.

Resource-based brokering initiatives include grant programs that provide resources to community-based organisations and academic researchers and/or institutions that aim to address key challenges through research and action. While some resource-based brokering initiatives simply provide monetary resources, others prefer to play a more active role in the partnership by taking on management responsibilities and/or offering extended support services such as training and knowledge mobilisation services. For example, the Social Science and Humanities Research Council of Canada (http://www.sshrc-crsh.gc.ca/about-au_sujet/partnerships-partenariats/index-eng.aspx) offers a series of grant programs to support partnerships between academics at different universities, as well as between businesses and non-profit organisations. Funds are granted to carry out research, training and knowledge mobilisation activities using approaches that involve partners collaborating and sharing leadership. Funds can be used to establish new partnerships, test partnership approaches and expand established partnerships. As a second example, the National Coordinating Centre for Public Engagement (www.publicengagement.ac.uk/), located in Bristol, UK, supports universities throughout the UK to increase how often and how well they engage in community-based research

and learning activities. It works with campus staff members and students to develop skills for community-engagement activities and offers training sessions (e.g. funding, impact, evaluation) and consultancy to researchers, research managers and staff members in community-based organisations.

Finally, brokering networks, the broadest of the brokering initiative categories, describe initiatives that tend to operate independently to foster relationships through a series of mechanisms. With brokering networks taking on a range of formal and informal structures, they often require little commitment from members and minimal resources to sustain. Networks can also work across geographies to provide a channel for sharing information, resources and ideas (Ontario Health Communities Coalition n.d.). Brokering networks offer opportunities to develop partnerships, collaborate on projects and share information in a more indirect way than the other four structures.

The Community-Campus Partnerships for Health (www.ccphealth.org/) is a membership-based CCE network that provides numerous opportunities to promote and connect communities and academic institutions around health equity and social justice (Community-Campus Partnerships for Health 2017). Through their website, multiple listservs and biennial conference, the network mobilises knowledge, provides training and technical assistance, conducts research, builds coalitions and advocates for supportive policies. As a brokering network, it unites community practitioners and academics from diverse fields around community-based participatory research principles and practices. On the other hand, the Canadian Rural Research Network (<http://rural-research-network.blogspot.ca/>) acts as a hub for rural

stakeholders across Canada, including academics, practitioners, formal and informal community groups, and government officials, to share research outputs. Members can stay up-to-date on rural research, connect with various rural stakeholders, and develop and maintain research partnerships. The Network has no budget, but is sustained by its members who serve on various committees.

Conclusion

While this framework provides a valuable tool for understanding and evaluating brokering initiatives, it is not intended to be static. In most cases, we found that the categories were not fixed and that many of the brokering initiatives we examined took on more than one of the structural allegiances and/or dimensions simultaneously. This speaks to the context in which many of these brokering initiatives operate (e.g. reacting/responding to changing funding realities, program priorities of community organisations, emerging/unanticipated needs, etc.). Also, as technology changes along with the needs of CCE, new tools are being developed that may require different kinds of frameworks to understand and interpret CCE activities. Thus, while we compared brokering initiatives in order to understand their different attributes, we are not advocating a standardised approach to evaluation. Our research and experience leads us to suggest that brokering initiatives must be context-specific and respond to the needs of both community and academic partners. However, we need mechanisms to support community-campus partnerships in a more institutional and sustained way. It is our hope that the analytical framework will make a meaningful contribution to this endeavour.

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Scientific activity of Nasir al-Din al-Tusi in historical retrospect

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Abstract

At the beginning of the VII century in the political life of the Near and Middle East, fundamental changes have taken place. The Arabs in a short time conquered a colossal territory, which included the lands of Iran, North Africa, North-West India, the Asian provinces of Byzantium, most of the former Roman Empire. In the conquered cities of the caliphate, observatories were built; libraries were created at palaces, mosques, and madaris. At the end of VII century in Baghdad, the first scientific center, an academy, the House of Wisdom, was founded, in which scholars who spoke different languages were assembled. During this period, the Arabic language became not only the state language of the Near and Middle East, but also the language of science and culture. Here the translation and commentary activity were very developed, the main works of ancient thought, such as the writings of Aristotle, Ptolemy were published in the 9th century in the Arabic-speaking world. In the history of the world's philosophical science, it is known that the peak of Arabic-speaking Aristotelianism was the work of Ibn Rushd, who turned to the study and commenting of Aristotle at the insistence of Ibn Tufail and stimulated the emergence of the interest of Eastern philosophical thought towards Antiquity. For two centuries from 750 to 950 years, the works of ancient authors on philosophy, mathematics, medicine, alchemy, and astronomy were translated into Arabic, which indicates the high scientific potential of that time in the East. Here developed such scientific disciplines as physics, chemistry, mathematics, medicine, astronomy, geography, botany. At the same time, Ibn Rushd composed 38 commentaries on the works of Aristotle, the "Republic" of Plato, the treatise "On the Mind" of Alexander of Aphrodisias, which subsequently had an important influence on the work of Nasir al-Din al-Tusi. Thus, this period in the history of Eastern scientific thought is marked by high intellectual potential.

Keywords: Azerbaijan, Nasir al-Din Tusi, Ibn Rushd, East, philosophy

Introduction

The study of the history of scientific thought of this era and activity of scientists show that Azerbaijani science reached a significant flourishing during this period, marking the processes of the Eastern Renaissance. Significant development is observed in as-

tronomy, astrology, geography, mathematics, geology, engraving, music, etc. in the late 13th - early 14th century. In many cities of Azerbaijan, architects built rabats, madrasah,

mosque and other structures. Maragha¹ and Tabriz were the main centers of the literary and scientific life of Azerbaijan at that time. Scientists from different countries worked in the Maragheh Observatory, even from distant China.

During the rule of Ilkhanate dynasty, Hulagu Khan (1256-1265) and Abaqa Khan (1265-1282), an outstanding scholar and organizer of science in Azerbaijan, Muhammad ibn Muhammad ibn al-Hasan al-Tusi made a significant contribution to the development of almost all the well-known branches of sciences, which the center for many years became Azerbaijan. Mathematics, ethics, cosmology, mineralogy, trigonometry, geography, history, law, calendars, medicine, education, morality, logic, theology, poetics, calligraphy are not only a complete list of research fields, which are deservedly headed by Nasir al-Din al-Tusi².

He was handsome, magnificent, noble, generous and patient person, faithful in friendship, possessed many high virtues and rendered a great help in case of adversity³.

The universal nature of the knowledge of Nasir al-Din gives grounds to assert that in his youth he received a many-sided education, which brought him great popularity. He lived with the Assassins until 1256 for more than twenty years and it was during this period that he wrote his famous works "Sharhal", "Isharat", "Tahrir Majesti".

Founded by Nasir al-Din al-Tusi, "Dar-al-ilm ve hikma" and the observatory in Maragha were the first Academy of Sciences in the Middle Ages, not only in the countries of the East, but also in Europe.

It was founded in 1259 on a hill to the north of the city of Maragha. With the permission of the Mongolian Hulagu khan, the

Maragheh Observatory was built. According to the historian Rashid ad-din, the construction of the world's largest observatory at that time took almost 7 years.

The history of the construction of this observatory is interesting. It is curious that one of the researchers of this story was Karl Marx, who knew the culture of the East very well. He wrote: "At a time when Khoja Nasir wanted to build an astronomical observatory in the city of Maragha and announced the estimated costs, Hulagu asked: "Is the science of the stars so useful that it is worth spending a huge amount of money on the observatory? "In response, Nasir said:" Let me carry out such an experiment: Let's arrange for someone secretly to go up this mountain and cast down a large empty caldron, but no one knew about it." Therefore, they did. When the caldron came down from the mountain, it made a loud noise. Because of this, panic broke out among the troops of Hulagu-khan. Nasir and Hulagu watched all this, and they remained calm. Then Nasir turned to Hulagu with the following words: "We know the reason for this noise, but the troops do not know, that's why we are calm here, and they are worried" (that is, ignorance of the real cause of the noise caused inadequate reaction of the troops). Similarly, Nasir al-Din al-Tusi persuaded the ruler that for a correct life orientation, it is necessary to have not erroneous but genuine ideas about the causes of what is happening. Therefore, he believed, it is necessary, besides the immediate reasons, to be aware of the reasons, precedents in the general chain of cause-reason relations, which is possible only through the knowledge of the general laws prevailing in the universe, of which the Earth is a part. This experiment and Tusi's arguments persuaded Hulagu-khan to finance the construction of the observatory»⁴.

Less than a year, Nasir al-Din chose a place for the observatory. Nasir al-Din personally participated in drawing up the draft

¹ Maragha is the largest architectural and artistic center of medieval Azerbaijan.

² Бунятов З. М. Насир ад-дин Мухаммед ат-Туси и развитие науки в Азербайджане в XVIII веке // Известия Академии Наук Азербайджанской ССР Серия истории, философии и права. 1982. № 1.

³ Бунятов З.М., Насир ад-Дин ат-Туси: новые биографические данные. Известия Ака наук Азербайджанской ССР. Серия истории философии и права. №2. Изд. «ЭЛМ», 1982. с 70

⁴ История азербайджанской философии. 2008. Ч. II. С. 132-133. З.М.Бунятов, Насир ад-Дин ат-Туси: новые биографические данные. Известия Ака наук Азербайджанской ССР. Серия истории философии и право. №2. Изд. «ЭЛМ», 1982. с 70

of the building and astronomical instruments. Starting to organize the library, he invited outstanding astronomers of the Caucasus, Central Asia, Iran, and Arabia to Maragha. The creation of the observatory in Maragha required large cash costs of 20,000 dinars.⁵

Thus, changing the policy of Hulagu khan, Nasir al-Din al-Tusi created favorable conditions for the development of science in Azerbaijan. He became a confidant and personal adviser to Hulagu khan after the capture of Alamut⁶ in November 1256. Predicting the fall of the Ismaili state, he proved the futility of resistance to the Mongols to the last of their lord Rukn al-Din Khurshah ibn Ala ad-Din Muhammad III, persuading him to surrender to Hulagu-khan. Hulagu rewarded al-Tusi for this, allowing him to save from the ruin of the rich Ismaili library and the book depositories of Baghdad, which testifies to his political perspicacity. However, despite this, many historians (for example, Imad-din al-Hanbali) condemned him, believing that it was because of Nasiraddin that Hulagu betrayed the caliph's sword.

On the recommendation of al-Tusi, Hulagu invited the outstanding scientists of

the time who designed and built the famous observatory in the city to Maragha, the capital of Ilkhanids. He also offered the post of khazina (the custodian of the library) to Ibn al-Fuwati⁷ in the At-Tusi Observatory⁸.

In the observatory, apart from the observation platform, special rooms for large instruments, rooms for a library of 400,000 books, other auxiliary premises were supposed. Here a huge storage was created with spacious rooms, which were filled with books taken from Baghdad, Syria and Al Jazeera.⁹ Nasir ad-Din himself in "Zij Ilkhani" writes: "For the construction of the observatory, I summoned a number of scholars including al-Mauayyid al-Urdi from Damascus, al-Fahr al-Maragi, who was in Mosul, al-Fihri al-Hilati, who lived in Tiflis and Najm al-Din Qazvini Dabiran-i. We began construction in Maragha in 652, in the month of Jumada al-awwal first (May 1259).

Before our (Maragheh M.S) observatory there was an observatory of Baradzhus, which was built 1400 years ago. After it, there was the Ptolemy Observatory, which was built in 285, after it, in Islamic times, an observatory of the Caliph al-Mamun, already 430 years old, was built in Baghdad. Next is the al-Bannani Observatory within Syria, the al-Hakimi Observatory in Egypt and the Ibn

⁵ Мамедбейли Г.Д., Основатель Марагинской обсерватории Мухаммед Насирэддин Туси. Издательство Академии Наук Азербайджанской ССР. Баку – 1961. с. 32

⁶ An important role in the surrender of Alamut to the Mongols was played by Nasir al-Din al-Tusi at the age of 30. Once in the state of the Assassins, beginning in Sertakht where he wrote the famous "Nasirean ethics" (Akhlāq-i Nasiri) and then Alamut in 1235, where he finished the commentary on the philosophical work of Ibn Sina's "Remarks and Admonitions" in 1242. In 1248 he completed the mathematical work "Exposition of Euclid" (Tahrir Uqlidis), the astronomical work "Commentary on the Almagest" (Tahrir al-Majisti) and a series of works by Euclid, Archimedes, Theodosius, Menelaus and other ancient mathematicians and astronomers. Б.А. Розенфельд. Астрономия стран Ислама «историко-астрономические исследования», вып. XVII, вып. 1984.

⁷ Ibn al-Fuwati is a follower and associate of famous Nasir al-Din al-Tusi. He was the custodian of the library at the Maragheh Observatory for 10 years. М.Сеидбейли. Сведения о деятелях Азербайджана XIII – начала. XIV века в сохранившейся части сочинения Ибн ал-Фувати (1244-1326) Талхис Маджма ал-адаб фи-л-муджам ал-алкаб. Известия Академия Наук Азербайджанской ССР, изд. «ЭЛМ» БАКУ 1987 год. с.79.

⁸ Сеидбейли М. Научно-культурная жизни Азербайджана второй половины XIII - начало XIV в. (по материалам сочинений Ибн ал-Фувати «Талхис маджма ал-адаб фи му'джем ал-алкаб»). Баку: Чашыюглы, 1999. С. 8.

⁹ Бунятов З.М., Насир ад-Дин ат-Туси: новые биографические данные. Известия Ака наук Азербайджанской ССР. Серия истории философии и право. №2. Изд. «ЭЛМ», 1982. с 70

al-Ilam Observatory. The last two were 250 years old." 10

Unfortunately, the archaeological excavations made so far have not given a complete view of the observatory.

More than 100 employees, scientists and students of Nasir al-Din al-Tusi worked at the Maragheh Observatory, Academy and Library¹¹. He himself conducted classes and seminars on philosophy, calligraphy, mathematics, astronomy and many other disciplines. At the same time, he was engaged in the training of scientific personnel in a special school at the observatory.

During this period, Nasir al-Din al-Tusi, in conjunction with the chief engineer Muayyid-ad Din, invented five astronomical instruments¹².

The observatory had an excellent set of diverse and numerous high-quality instruments worth 20,000 dinars. All astronomical instruments from various cities were brought here.

The well-known scientist A. Berry writes: "A lot of astronomers worked under the general supervision of Nasiraddin. The tools they used were, in all likelihood, better than those that used in Copernicus's time ..." ¹³

In the Maragheh Observatory, terrestrial and celestial globes were produced and exhibited for general review. One of the celestial globe from the Maragheh Observatory, designed in 1279 by al-Urdi, is now stored in the Mathematical-Physical Salon of Dresden State Art Collections. ¹⁴

In the observatory the library occupied several buildings was located, as well as

unique measuring instruments built by order of Nasir-ad-Din. Before the beginning of construction for astronomical observations, astrolabes and a star globe were created. On them were placed 1,022 stars whose positions after the registration process were taken from Zij Ilkhani (Tusi). Scientists of the Islamic East have perfected the astrolabe and began to apply it not only to determine the time and duration of the day and night, but also for the implementation of some mathematical calculations and for astronomical predictions.

Over time, the astronomical instruments of the Maragheh Observatory were used in various observatories of the world. Among them are the observatories of Tycho Brahe, Samarkand and Beijing Observatories.

In this library, 400 thousand volumes of manuscripts were collected in Arabic, Persian and Syrian languages in various fields of science, which were brought here by order of Hulagu-khan from different countries¹⁵.

Among the scholars of Dar-al-ilm ve hikma, which was headed by Tusi himself were scientists from China - Fu Mengchi, India - Kamal ad-Din Aflatun al-Hindi and Ala ad-Din Suleiman al-Multani and other countries¹⁶.

A large number of outstanding scientists worked here, but incomplete information left from them.

M. Mamedbayli in his monograph lists the scientific staff of the Maragheh Astronomical Observatory¹⁷: Muhammad Nasir al-Din al-Tusi, Qutb al-Din al-Shirazi¹⁸,

¹⁰ See there, p.73

¹¹ *Мустафа Джавад*. Ибн ад-Фувати Талхис маджма ал-Адаб фи-л-Муджам ал-алкаб («Сокращённый сборник сведений в словаре титулов») Дамаск, 1962-1967. С. 19.

¹² *Мамедбейли Г. Д.*, Основатель Марагинской обсерватории Мухаммед Насирэддин Туси. Издательство Академии Наук Азербайджанской ССР. Баку – 1961. с. 199

¹³ *Берри А.* Краткая история астрономии. М.; Л., 1946. с.79.

¹⁴ *Розенфельд Б. А.* Астрономия стран Ислама // Историко-астрономическое исследование. М.: Наука, вып. XVII, вып. 1984.

¹⁵ *Сеидбейли М.* Научно-культурная жизни Азербайджана второй половины XIII - начало XIV в. (по материалам сочинений Ибн ал-Фувати «Талхис маджма ал-адаб фи му'дjam ал-алкаб»). Баку: Чашыоглы, 1999. С. 8.

¹⁶ See there, p. 10

¹⁷ *Мамедбейли Г. Д.*, Основатель Марагинской обсерватории Мухаммед Насирэддин Туси. Издательство Академии Наук Азербайджанской ССР. Баку – 1961. с. 194

¹⁸ Qutb al-Din al-Shirazi (1236 -1311) studied medicine. Upon his arrival in Maraga, he, under the direction of Nasir al-Din, began to study mathematics and astronomy, and achieved great success in these fields. But then Shirazi was forced to leave Maragha, as his teacher did not like his success. At that time he worked as a doctor and judge in Iran

Gregory Abu'l Faraj, Muvayiddaddin Ordi, Najm al-Din Qazvini Dabiran-i, Fakhreddin Ikhlati, Fakhreddin Maraghi, Mohiuddin Kamal¹⁹, Sheikh Kamal, Mahmud Najm al-Din Damgani Ustelebi, Khusameddin Shami, Sedreddin Nasir Tusi, Najm al-Din al-Katibi, Fu Mengchi, Isa Mongol, Taqi ad-Din al-Khashaishi, Nafis al-Din bin Tolaib, son of Safi ad-Din Nasrani, Muhammad bin Muvayiddaddin Ordi, Abi al-Shukr al-Maghribi, Jamal ad-Din Muḥammad al-Zaydi al-Bukhari.

For a scientific institution of that time, this is a very large number of employees. It is necessary to add the following: based on the data of some historical documents, it can be stated that there were more than 100 employees in the Maragheh Observatory. According to Rashid ad-din, after Khulagu's death, Khan was succeeded by Abaga Khan. On the occasion of the coronation of Abaga Khan, awards were distributed. The list of scientists of the Maragheh Observatory was presented by Nasir ad-Din, whom he asked to be awarded. Rashid ad-din writes: "About a hundred honorable scholars from teachers of the human race, Khoja Nasiraddin Tusi," May the Lord have mercy on him - who were at the court, he paid out of the general remuneration"²⁰.

and Asia Minor. But soon he again returns to the state of Ilkhanids, of which capital (1295-1304) moved to Tabriz by Mahmud Ghazan-khan. Here he headed the observatory, which became the successor of the Maragheh Observatory. The famous mathematician and astronomer Nizam al-Din Hasan al-Nisaburi and the optician Kamal al-Din al-Farisi worked at the Tabriz Observatory. And Shirazi left a large number of works on astronomy. *Б.А. Розенфельд. Астрономия стран Ислама «историко-астрономические исследования», вып. XVII, вып. 1984.*

¹⁹ Mohiuddin from Maghrib is the author of a very popular work on the critical analysis of Almagest.

²⁰ Рашид ад-Дин сборник том III. пер. с персидского под ред. Рамаскевича с участием А. Ализаде М.-Л, 1946 год с.32

Judging by the number of employees, the Maragheh Observatory was the largest of all medieval astronomical observatories larger than the Ulugbek Observatory, the Jaipur Observatory in India²¹.

Almost all astronomers and mathematicians of the Near and Middle East and North Africa: Ibn Kurra and al-Farghani (IX c) al-Khujandi, as-Sagani and As-Sufi (X c), Al-Biruni (X-IX cc), al-Hazini (XII c.), Nasir al-Din al-Tusi (XIII c.) and others were the authors of the works devoted to the astronomical instruments.

The result of 12-year observations of Maragheh astronomers from 1259 to 1271 became the "Ilkhanic Tables" ("Zij-i Ilkhani")²². It contained tables for calculating the position of the Sun and planets, a star catalog, and the first six values of the tables of sines and tangents at 1' interval. Based on observations of the stars, al-Tusi accurately determined the value of the precession of the equinoxes²³.

The famous orientalist I. Krachkovsky emphasizing Nasir ad-Din's treasure in the field of astronomy and mathematics singles out his work "Ilkhanic Tables"

Nasir-ad-Din Tusi intended to study the stars in the sky during 30 years, according to him, all the planets complete the full conversion and only the impatient perseverance of the khan forced almost 2/3 to shorten the observation period.

The Maragheh Observatory had a great deal of influence on the observatories of many countries of the east, including the ob-

²¹ Мамедбейли Г. Д., Основатель Марагинской обсерватории Мухаммед Насирэддин Туси. Издательство Академии Наук Азербайджанской ССР. Баку – 1961. с. 194-195

²² "Zij-i Ilkhani"- an astronomical catalog that was compiled by Nasir al-Din al-Tusi and his colleagues of the Maragheh Observatory for 20 years.

²³ Насреддин ат-Туси.
dic.academic.ru/dic/nst/sie/18010/ТУСИ.

servatory in Khanbalik²⁴ (now called Beijing), as well as the astronomical observatory of Ulug Beg. Between astronomers of the Maragheh Observatory and Beijing astronomers there were close scientific ties.

For example, the Azerbaijani historian in XIII in Rashid ad-Din said that the construction of the Beijing Observatory was entrusted to Jamaledin, but since he was not fully competent in this matter, he had to send an observatory to the Maragheh Observatory to study the experience of its construction²⁵. Thus, during the construction of the Beijing Observatory of the XIII century and the design of its instruments, the experience of the Maragheh Observatory was studied and some of its instruments were copied.

Nasir al-Din al-Tusi has the great merit of solving the fifth postulate of Euclid that two parallel lines intersect in space.

The importance of this problem for the creation of a common cosmology, can be seen from the fact that many centuries later such great minds as Augustin-Louis Cauchy, Carl Friedrich Gauss, Nikolai Lobachevsky continued to work on it. It was Lobachevsky, with the help of the Russian scientist of Azerbaijani origin Mirza Kazym-Bek (who at the request of the first translated Tusi's work from Persian into Russian) managed to solve this problem. As a result, Lobachevsky's famous work on non-Euclidean geometries²⁶.

Tusi's name as a mathematician stands in line with Pythagoras, Euclid. Among the mathematical works of al-Tusi known is the "Treatise on the Quadrilateral". The treatise was written in Persian, during his stay in Alamut, and in Arabic in the brief form in Maragha. In "The Collection of Arithmetic with the help of board and dust" (1265) al-Tusi described in detail extraction of roots from all degrees: on the example $^4 2441400626$ al-Tusi gives a table of binomial coefficients in the form of a triangle, now

known as the Pascal triangle here. The well-known Oriental philosopher Muhammad Iqbal in the article "The Spirit of Islamic Culture", characterizing Tusi, writes: «Tusi brought mathematics from the millennial to the next. He put forward the idea of a hyperplane»²⁷. For the first time in the history of world science in this work, trigonometry is regarded as an independent field of science. This treatise was translated into English, Russian and French. In addition, the treatise called "Exposition of Euclid's Elements" by Tusi, printed in 1594 in Arabic and subsequently in Latin, played a huge role in spreading Tusi's scientific ideas in Europe.

Thus, in his writings he laid the foundations of celestial mechanics. After 400 years they were rediscovered by Western European scientists. The Danish astronomer Tycho Brahe (1546-1601), repeating Tusi's calculations, compiled a catalog of over 700 stars. Based on the works of Brahe, I. Kepler studied celestial mechanics. I. Newton, relying on their works, achieved the fundamental laws of mechanics. Tusi's mathematical works have been published many times in Italy, England, and in France - the main centers of the European Renaissance.²⁸

Nasir al-Din al-Tusi is the author of 20 famous scientific works on mathematics and astronomy. Author of scientific works in the field of physics, economics, philosophy, medicine, geography, mineralogy, ethics, logic, he wrote more than 100 scientific papers. His works such as "On Jewels", "Sphere and Cylinder", "On the Calendar", "The Law of Medicine", "The Book of Valuable Stones", "Optics of Euclid" and many others are stored in the scientific libraries of Baku, Paris, Berlin, Vienna, Oxford, Cambridge, Istanbul, Moscow, St. Petersburg, Florence and other cities.

The scientific authority of Nasir al-Din is great; the abundance of his works in many fields of science is of great interest to re-

²⁴ Khubilai led the construction of a similar observatory under the leadership of Jalal ad-Din, which is still operating in the center of Beijing.

²⁵ Мамедбейли Г. Д., Основатель Марагинской обсерватории Мухаммед Насирэддин Туси. Издательство Академии Наук Азербайджанской ССР. Баку – 1961. с. 218, 220.

²⁶ http://people.ziyonet.uz/ru/person/view/_at_tusiy

²⁷ Алиева С. М. Моральные феномены Насреддина Туси и Рихарда Вагнера (Мысли в литературном и философском контекстах). Религия – наука – общество: проблемы и перспективы взаимодействия. Материалы международной научно-практической конференции 1–2 ноября 2011 года. Пенза – Липецк – Семей 2011. с.27

²⁸ <https://www.baku.ru/blg-list.php?id=91234>

searchers. Azerbaijani scientist Farid Alekperli, investigating the work of Nasir al-Din al-Tusi, noted that, despite the large amount of literature, both local and foreign, many details of the scientific and philosophical activity of al-Tusi remained, as it were, beyond the scope of research, namely, there is not a single special work devoted to the evolutionary views of the scientist, the evolutionary theory, nor the contribution of Nasiraddin to the development of biological thought in the medieval East²⁹.

In addition to mathematics and astronomy, Nasir al-Din traces a large number of studies in the field of logic, theology, and physics. Medieval history is often the history of theology. Affecting the religious and philosophical foundations of the evolutionary theory of Tusi, I would like to note that the picture of the evolution of the world, drawn by him, is of an ideological nature peculiar to his time. On the one hand, the philosopher enthusiastically writes about God's perfect creation of the surrounding world, on the other hand, recognizes the self-development and self-improvement of matter. According to Tusi, nature as a whole and every creature individually can develop and improve independently, but God inspires and directs this development. Thus, once created by God, the world further develops itself according to the plan of the Creator.

However, in all manifestations of his worldview, the great scientist retains faith in the person's ability to cognize.

In his book "Akhlaq-i Nasiri" (A work on ethics), Tusi presented his ethical views, which represent the new moral paradigms of his time. In this treatise, Tusi raises the problems of being that forms the basis of human behavior, but his main idea is the theme of human origin. According to Tusi, human is the highest form of intelligence in the universe. Tusi knew Greek philosophy well, gave

an objective interpretation of the works of Aristotle, Plato, as well as Porphyry, the famous mathematician and logic of the Middle Ages³⁰.

His treatise "Nasirean Ethics" is today considered the best example of artistic and philosophical literature. This treatise is translated into many languages. In this treatise, the author raises the problems of being, exploring the philosophical aspects of the human character, examines the problems of good and evil.

In this article, it is impossible to describe all the activities of this outstanding scientist, who was considered the "king of science" in the East. But one can definitely conclude that he possessed a high scientific potential. As it was stated earlier, in the Middle Ages the blossoming of science was observed in the East and special attention was given to world scientific knowledge. IX-XIV centuries were marked by the "Golden Age" - the Renaissance - the Eastern Renaissance. In this Golden Age, in our opinion, it is possible to inscribe the name of the outstanding thinker of that era, Nasir al-Din al-Tusi, in golden letters. From Maragha, Nasir al-Din al-Tusi moved to Baghdad, where he died in 1274, he was 80 years old. After his death, his son took the post of the head of the observatory.

As a sign of special respect, Nasir al-Din al-Tusi was called "hodja" (mentor, a wise man). He was buried in a mosque, Jama Masjid and the calligraphic inscription on his grave reads: "The protector of religion and people, the Shah of the country of Science. He is the only one, such a son had never before been born."

²⁹ Алекперли Ф. Эволюционные взгляды Насреддина Туси. Баку: Орнак, 2000.

³⁰ Алекперли Ф. Эволюционные взгляды Насреддина Туси. Баку: Орнак, 2000

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Exploring Community-based Research Values and Principles: Lessons Learned from A Delphi Study

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Abstract

However, the idea of CBR itself can be contestable. In this article, we use CBR as an umbrella term for research that involves community engagement. Other terms that may fall under this umbrella include action research, participatory action research, community-based participatory research, community-based participatory action research, peer research, (community) engaged research, and inclusion research. In some fields, such as health sciences, it is important to distinguish between CBR, which indicates that research takes place in the community, as opposed to the laboratory, clinic or hospital, and community-based participatory research, in which the community plays an equitable role in every phase of the research 2011.

Keywords: *Community-based research, participatory research, Delphi, research ethics, participatory action research, CBPR*

Introduction

The response, the past 20 years have witnessed the emergence of participatory approaches that seek to reduce the distance between researchers and the 'subjects' of research by engaging directly with local stakeholders. Community-based research (CBR) is a relatively new methodology often aligned with critical theory and characterised by co-generation of knowledge and shared decision-making between researchers and community members. As such, CBR may challenge traditional ways of 'doing research'. Supporting CBR has increasingly become a strategic priority for universities due to its potential to enhance research impact (Hall 2009; Speer & Christens 2013). As CBR

is integrated into institutional frameworks and a growing number of researchers incorporate CBR into their research practice, it becomes increasingly important to understand CBR research principles and values.

Within the literature, scholars have unpacked the terminology frequently associated with CBR, including action (Reid, Tom & Frisby 2006), participation (Cornwall 2008), community (Ross et al. 2010), engagement (Flicker et al. 2008), research (Wells & Jones 2009), peer (Roche, Flicker & Guta 2010) and inclusion (OWHN 2009). Scholarship has investigated methods of knowledge dissemination (Chen et al. 2010), levels of engagement (Flicker et al. 2008) and relationships with institutional ethics review boards (Shore et al. 2011). However, to date

there has been no systematic study of CBR values and principles guiding the research process or of how the application of CBR principles differs across academic researchers and community partners in various disciplines in one large university institution. Often, CBR values and principles are provided as a list of ethical considerations that are taken as given rather than negotiated by those directly involved in the research process. Moreover, the means by which particular principles or values are identified is not explained, or is done descriptively, usually by narrating research processes. Similarly, research has not yet explored the ways in which understandings of CBR's underlying values differ with respect to the faculty member's own research compared to the broader research values of a large university with many faculties and departments which may hold rigid ideas of what counts as 'real research'.

In order to address these gaps, our purpose for this study was to provide a forum for discussion of CBR values and principles (VPs) across disciplines for both faculty and community partners. In this article, we report the findings of a systematic cross-disciplinary survey of CBR researchers and community partners at a large Canadian research university. We also explore some common understandings of CBR's defining values and principles among different groups of stakeholders engaged in community-based research. Through the Delphi approach, this study generated a set of community-based research VPs. However, the findings also uncovered diverse and complex understandings among the respondents of the potentially 'political' nature of CBR. We highlight the complexity of defining VPs of CBR in one institution, given the issues of relationality and power reflected in the study.

Literature review

The major themes in the literature on CBR values and principles may be grouped under three broad, interconnected concerns: relationships, power and social change. Relationships refer to the multifaceted relations among community members engaging in research, the community organisations representing community members, university re-

searchers and their institution. Power denotes access and control over resources, data and decision-making as well as over the definition of legitimate academic knowledge production. Social change references the desire of many CBR researchers to better the living conditions of research participants or provide support and capacity-building for greater equity and justice. We explore these issues in more detail below.

Relationships

Most authors agree that the relationship between the researcher and the researched is central to CBR. Accountability, trust, reciprocity, respect, solidarity and collaboration are frequently mentioned in the literature; moreover, for CBR scholars, relationships are part of a process that is at least as important as scholarly outcomes such as publications (Brydon-Miller 2009; Elliott 2012; Israel 2008; Jacklin & Kinoshameg 2008). Several scholars suggest that CBR partners must commit to long-term research relationships and emphasise the iterative nature of the CBR process (CAMH 2011; Horowitz, Robinson & Seifer 2009). Drawing on Kirkness and Barnhardt's (2001) earlier work, Stanton (2014) proposes that CBR should adhere to the 'four Rs' of respect, relevance, reciprocity and responsibility. CBR researchers also stress the importance of open and inclusive processes and acknowledgement of one's social location (Brydon-Miller 2009; Cochran et al. 2008).

Stanton (2014) examines the potential for CBR to disrupt mainstream research paradigms that privilege 'individual merit', hierarchical prestige, methodological and discursive norms, and work that culminates in publication, to instead value the lived experiences of individuals and communities and ensure dissemination of knowledge gained to all partners. In this sense, CBR blurs the line between the researcher and the researched by recognising research participants as active 'subjects' rather than passive 'objects;' everyone is an expert (OWHN 2009). For example, St Denis (1992) argues that CBR is for and with rather than about or on research participants.

CBR's focus on relationships and accountability creates an affinity with Indige-

nous research methodologies. As in CBR, Indigenous researchers develop relationships in order to seek knowledge (Wilson 2008). Relationality in Indigenous research is not concerned so much with statistical significance or validity, but rather with accountability to relationships; this requires an unsettling of binaries such as knower/known and subject/object (Wilson 2008). Cautioning that, from the vantage point of the colonised, 'research' has been, and for the most part continues to be, a tool of imperialism and colonialism, Smith (2012) affirms 'research' to be one of the dirtiest words in the Indigenous world's vocabulary, and sets an agenda for research that takes seriously Indigenous ways of knowing and being by posing a series of questions similar to those asked by CBR researchers. These include 'Whose research is it? Who owns it? Whose interests does it serve? Who will benefit from it? Who has designed its questions and framed its scope? Who will carry it out? Who will write it up? How will the results be disseminated?' (p. 10; see also Flicker, Roche & Guta 2010; Minkler 2004; OWHN 2009). In these contexts, CBR may go some way to addressing conflict between the Western values of the academic setting and those of marginalised and Indigenous communities (Cochran et al. 2008).

Power

In conventional research methodology, the 'objects' of research provide data which the researcher ('subject') analyses and owns. Conversely, many CBR scholars share the objective of creating equity in research relationships through attention to social inequities and shared ownership of the project, and findings for the benefit of all partners (Heffner, Zandee & Schwander 2003; Horowitz, Robinson & Seifer 2009; Jacklin & Kinoshameg 2008). Breaking down traditional understandings of research subjects and objects through partnerships based on shared ownership implies disrupting existing power relations. For example, Cochran et al.

(2008) argue that conventional research has perpetuated a myth that Indigenous people represent a 'problem' to be examined and solved and that they are passive 'objects' requiring assistance from outside experts. CBR responds to the limitations of traditional research approaches by acknowledging different ways of knowing, valuing the voices of community residents and generating knowledge that meaningfully addresses locally identified problems (Fletcher 2003; Jacobson & Rugeley 2007).

Generating equity in relationships means CBR must challenge power explicitly (Elliott 2012; OWHN 2009). Accordingly, most writing on CBR begins with an assumption that CBR is more openly political (in the sense of naming and unsettling relationships of power) than conventional research aimed at objectivity. For example, Brydon-Miller and Maguire (2009, p. 79) suggest CBR is an 'unapologetically political approach to knowledge creation through and for action'. For many authors, ethics and empowerment are two key pillars of CBR (Blumenthal 2011; CAMH 2011; Elliott 2012; Israel et al. 2001; Jacklin & Kinoshameg 2008; Minkler 2004). Building on these ideas, some scholars insist on the importance of anti-oppression principles and an acknowledgement that research is not value free, arguing that claims to objectivity have been used to subordinate research participants (CAMH 2011; OWHN 2009; Savan et al. 2009; Schwartz & van de Sande 2011). CBR scholars assert that CBR is a response to conventional research that has failed to protect or benefit participants and directly or indirectly led to significant harm (Wells & Jones 2009).

Because of CBR's explicit attention to power relations, some critics contend that CBR is unscientific, overly political and susceptible to bias, that community interests supersede theoretical and scientific rigour, and that it constitutes activism rather than research (Hernández 2015; McAreavey & Muir 2011; Ochocka and Janzen 2014). In

other words, scholars have identified a perceived tension between the values of scientific rigour and those of community participation (Elliott 2012; Minkler 2004). However, advocates argue that CBR has greater potential for meeting the standards of scientific knowledge creation than conventional social science precisely because researchers are engaged directly in the transformation of the phenomena they study (Brydon-Miller, Greenwood & Maguire 2003). Similarly, feminists have long pointed to the value of acknowledging the situated nature of knowledge (Haraway 1988).

Social Change

Following from the focus on power relations, several authors suggest that a key principle of CBR involves the integration of knowledge and action for social change, with the objective of transforming fundamental structures that sustain inequalities in order to improve the lives of those involved, as they define improvement (Brydon-Miller & Maguire 2009; CAMH 2011; Elliott 2012; Jacklin & Kinoshameg 2008; OWHN 2009; Stanton 2014). For Ross et al. (2010), social justice is a goal of CBR that includes ensuring research priorities respect the needs of marginalised communities and promote self-determination. Similarly, St Denis (1992) argues that CBR must be committed to critiquing the status quo and building a more just society.

As part of promoting positive social change, many authors stress the commitment of CBR researchers to capacity-building, co-learning, and expansion of critical consciousness (Brydon-Miller & Maguire 2009; CAMH 2011; Horowitz, Robinson & Seifer 2009; OWHN 2009; Stanton 2014; Stoudt, Fox & Fine 2012). For example, Freudenberg and Tsui (2014) argue that improvements in health equity requires addressing the social determinants of health; consequently, policy change becomes a public health goal. Power dynamics are woven throughout policy efforts to improve health, and the work of public health researchers is inherently political because it concerns power relations (Freudenberg & Tsui 2014).

In sum, the literature reveals CBR as an ethical research practice that calls for re-

searchers to be reflexive throughout the research process, leading to social transformation. Although the literature speaks to the values and principles of CBR, they have not been clearly articulated. To address this gap, we conducted a Delphi study among active CBR researchers at a research university in Western Canada.

Methodology

The university in which we conducted this study piloted a CBR initiative a few years ago. A steering committee under the Vice-President Research was set up to increase the visibility of CBR and promote the adoption of best practice at the university. Despite the fact that CBR is widely practised on campus, there has been a concern among CBR researchers that they are disadvantaged in research ethics reviews and tenure and promotion processes by the lack of understanding of the values and principles (VPs) of CBR. To address this concern, we conducted this study to generate a list of VPs that could be used as reference for these reviews and processes.

As a comprehensive research university with over 5000 research faculty members, CBR researchers come from a variety of disciplines, each of which has its own research tradition, stakeholders and understanding of CBR. It is therefore difficult to identify all CBR researchers. Besides, the very essence of CBR entails the participation of community partners; therefore, it was also important that we involve their voices in a study to explore the values and principles of CBR. The actual number and identification of all community partners involved in CBR with this university was hard to determine. Thus, it was technically difficult to generate a frame for sampling via a traditional survey method.

Since broad generalisation was not our goal, we decided to employ the Delphi technique developed by the RAND Corporation in the 1950s (Dalkey 1967) to conduct this study. The Delphi method is a popular approach widely used in different fields to generate agreement through synthesis of a diverse range of expert opinions (Hasson, Keeney & McKenna 2000; Yan & Tsang 2005). As a research tool, Delphi depends on group dynamics rather than statis-

tical authority to achieve consensus among experts (Okoli & Pawlowski 2004). It is a systematic, multiple-step process to solicit and collect information from respondents who are experts in a subject area. The design of a Delphi study is flexible and responsive to the actual data collection process. The number of rounds of data collection is contingent on the emergence of consensus which, although mainly based on majority view, is achieved without respondents feeling they are being judged (Geist 2010). Delphi also allows respondents to respond to emerging ideas during the research process in a time-effective manner (Tersine & Riggs 1976). In the absence of a face-to-face group discussion, respondents can express and exchange ideas freely in a confidential and anonymous fashion (Okoli & Pawlowski 2004).

Respondents

Following the Delphi tradition, respondents in our study were presumed to be experts in community-based research. Prior to this study, the Steering Committee organised several events to promote CBR on campus. An email list of approximately 200 CBR research practitioners was compiled. Phone, email and in-person invitations to take part in the study were sent to all registered researchers. We also invited people on the list to refer to us other CBR researchers who might be interested in participating, and an email was sent to all university Deans with a request to forward the invitation to members of their faculties who may have been actively involved in CBR. We also invited researchers who confirmed their participation to recommend at least one of their community partners take part in this study. A total of 106 people, including 50 faculty researchers, 37 community partners and 19 staff, who are research staff supporting and working on CBR research projects conducted by faculty researchers, were finally confirmed. They were invited to participate in three rounds of data collection, which were to take place from April to July 2015. Generally, Delphi

prefers a stable and small group of respondents throughout the process. However, as it was difficult to monitor this large group of respondents, particularly when their participation was anonymous due to a requirement of the institutional ethics review protocol, ultimately only 70 of the 106 (66 per cent) confirmed participants took part in the first round of the survey. Attrition rate in Round 2 was 38.6 per cent and in Round 3, 48.6 per cent. Despite this, as noted in Table 1, there was a fair representation from faculty, community partners and staff in all three rounds. However, due to the small sample and the purpose of the study, we did not compare the answers from these three groups of respondents.

Procedures

The Delphi method is a stepwise process. The first step involved creating a draft list of values and principles. Based on an extensive literature review, which included records generated from previous CBR activities organised by the Steering Committee, 13 major categories (see Table 2) with a total of 150 itemised VPs were generated. The list was reviewed and discussed by a working group which had been set up to advise the Steering Committee on ethical issues related to CBR. Minor adjustments were made based on the discussion. In view of the diverse terminologies used by researchers from different disciplines across the campus, the working group also recommended not to provide an operational definition of CBR in order to allow respondents to describe their practice in an open-ended way. An online survey tool was employed in the three rounds of data collection.

Note: The number of items eliminated in the first round of the survey based on the cut-off point (discussed below) appears in brackets.

The aim of the first round of the survey was to refine a list of VPs for community-based research rooted in the experiences of the researchers and community members involved in the study. This list then formed the basis of subsequent rounds of Delphi. Respondents were asked to indicate whether each category, and its itemised values and principles, was significant for their CBR practice and therefore could remain on the list in subsequent rounds. A comment box was provided under each VP for additional comments. The final question asked respondents to describe their CBR practice. Forty-three respondents provided a total of 252 comments in the first section, and 52 respondents provided descriptions of their CBR practice.

Delphi generates consensus largely and arbitrarily based on a majority rule. However, determining a reasonable cut-off point for sufficient consensus can be controversial (Yan & Tsang 2005). According to the literature, the minimum cut-off is 51 per cent, and some Delphi studies employ up to 80 per cent. Following completion of Round 1, a workshop was held to discuss the desirable cut-off point. All survey participants were invited. Twelve people attended the workshop (five faculty members, three staff, three community partners and the project RA). Following previous Delphi studies reported in the literature, attendees at the workshop decided to adopt a two-third majority rule, i.e. 67 per cent, as the cut-off point; the same figure was used for the Round 2 and 3 surveys. Although the 67 per cent cut-off was in fact arbitrary, it was considered by workshop attendees to represent a reasonable figure that was neither too restrictive nor too open. In Round 1, respondents were asked to select items from the provided list of VPs. VPs chosen by two-thirds or more of respondents were included. In Rounds 2 and 3, the Delphi survey questions were about importance and relevance as they perceived them. Answers were arranged on a Likert scale from 1 (least) to 5 (most). Only VP items for which two-thirds or more of respondents checked '4' or '5' were retained. As a result, the total number of itemised VPs was reduced to 88 from 150. Workshop at-

tendees and the study researchers also discussed rewording some VP categories and itemised values and principles, for example, 'Participation' became 'Equitable participation'. Further, since only one itemised principle under 'Transformation of fundamental structures' passed the cut-off, it was decided that we would eliminate this category and move the remaining item to the category of 'Long-term relationship', where it was more appropriately located.

The Round 2 survey had two parts. In the first part, the central question concerned the relevance of the remaining itemised VPs in each category. Specifically, we asked, 'On a scale of 1–5 (with 5 being "most relevant") how relevant is this itemized VP to: a) your CBR practice? b) the university?' Each section included a space for respondents to share additional comments. Part 2 was an optional question that asked whether any of the VPs or refined meanings that had fallen below the 67 per cent cut-off in Round 1 were crucial to respondents' research.

Round 3 focused on the importance of the 12 remaining VP categories. Respondents were asked, 'On a scale of 1–5 (with 5 being "most important") how important is this VP to a) your CBR practice? b) the university?' Each section included a comment box for respondents to share additional comments. Since the intention of this round of the survey was to prioritise these 12 categories based on their importance, no cut-off point was used. Instead, totals were derived from the sum of the percentage of respondents who indicated the importance to be either four or five.

At the end of the Round 3 survey, we provided an opportunity for respondents to share their thoughts on possible uses of the results from this study as well as any other comments they wished to share. Twenty people provided a total of 23 comments.

Limitations

This study has its limitations. It was hard to provide a universally accepted definition of such a heavily laden term as CBR. By not providing an operational definition, we were able to include diverse opinions, but the respondents might have answered the questions from different or even contradic-

tory perspectives. Due to the nature of the research design, we were not able to compare these diverse perspectives in the answers of the three major stakeholder groups. Further, the Delphi method is meant to solicit opinions from a group of experts through a methodologically 'neutral' medium, a survey in this case. However, the 'majority rule' in determining criteria unexpectedly raised some of the same political challenges that many CBR researchers have already experienced with regard to their CBR practice vis-a-vis the university and their departmental colleagues, in that some respondents found some of the VPs most important to them were not held in the same regard by other respondents and therefore not included in the final list.

Findings

Throughout the Delphi exercise process, we did not define CBR for respondents. Instead, in Round 1, we deliberately asked respondents to describe their CBR practice. The descriptions that we received set the context for understanding the Delphi results. According to the descriptions provided, respondents' research practices involved an extensive range of types and intensity of collaboration with community partners/researchers. Specific methods also varied widely and included both qualitative and quantitative methods. For some respondents, CBR starts with community needs, and the research questions, methods and actions taken are defined by community members. For other respondents, research questions and methods originate from the researcher and there is no expectation that action will be taken on the findings.

Dichotomised Views

Some respondents acknowledged that addressing power relations was important but resisted the characterisation of such efforts as 'political'. For example, one participant stated:

The research itself need not be (perhaps, should not be) political or politically moti-

vated...However, the issue of power relationships between researchers, community groups and community members is important and must be consciously and overtly addressed.

Others found descriptors such as 'anti-oppressive' and 'empowering' to be too negative and/or pathologising, preferring more positive framings, e.g. 'social justice'. The controversy around the political nature of CBR was well reflected in participants' narratives, particularly regarding the adherence to Indigenous epistemologies and anti-racist, anti-oppressive, and anti-colonial or decolonising perspectives.

For some respondents, these overtly politicised perspectives were critical to their work. As one participant aptly noted:

With the dropping of the above VPs [related to these perspectives], academic researchers maintain their privileged ability to define, design, and implement...Ideally we should all be aiming to protect the most vulnerable and be committed to praxis that contributes to decolonizing and anti-oppressive methodologies and theoretical frameworks.

Through the process, we also heard a strong voice from a few respondents who repeatedly pointed out the relevance of Indigenous and anti-colonial frameworks to CBR. For example, one respondent stated in the second round:

I feel strongly that the values related to Indigenous and anti-colonial frameworks need to be included, otherwise we will continue to conduct research that is colonial and creates harm. I am not sure how many Indigenous communities or partners participated in the first round, but it might be important to offer this again if the N is low.

However, not all participants agreed that CBR is always conducted with marginalised groups or that all ways of knowing should be respected. For example, as one participant suggested, 'Community collaborative research is not always about isms and oppression.'

These dichotomised views were also evident in the results of the survey. Indeed, as reflected in the narrative data, we can see a divergent perspective on the 'political' nature of CBR (Table 3). The two VP categories, 'Addressing power relations' and 'Transformation of fundamental structures', which were perceived by some respondents as 'political', were trimmed down significantly in terms of the number of itemised VPs and, in the latter case, removed entirely. As indicated above, many of the more overtly political itemised VPs did not reach a majority consensus in the first round of the survey; for instance, 'Problematizes systematic relations of power in the social construction of knowledge' (44 per cent), 'Based on an anti-oppression framework' (41 per cent) and 'Fundamentally challenges the structures of oppression' (54 per cent).

The question of whether 'action' is an objective of CBR also provoked disagreement (Table 4). While a number of respondents characterised their research as 'community-based participatory action research', others did not suggest any action after the research, if at all. Related to this question, participants also varied in their perspectives on whether CBR questioned the status quo. For example, one commented, 'Sometimes the status quo is not that bad.'

Values and Principles

A central purpose of this study was to generate a list of VPs that different stakeholders could use as a reference for research ethics applications, tenure and promotion reviews, and formal collaboration agreements (readers who would like to view the complete list of itemised VPs should contact the lead author). However, when formulating this study, we were reminded at the outset that CBR researchers have frequently perceived discrepancies between the research values that are important to them as individual researchers and the priorities of the university as an institutional collective. Therefore, in both Rounds 2 and 3 we asked respondents to rank the relevance and importance of VPs for both their own CBR practice and that of the university community. The discrepancy between individual and in-

stitutional research values is indeed reflected in our findings.

Relevance of itemised vps

As reflected in the list, respondents place great emphasis on a few key VPs that have been discussed in the literature, such as dialogue, togetherness, reciprocity, respect for local knowledge, accountability to the community, and the importance of iterative processes, to name a few. However, our findings also show that the respondents hold different perspectives in terms of the relevance of the VPs to their own CBR practice versus the practice of the university as an institution. In Table 5, we summarise the number of itemised VPs relevant to both respondents.

Looking into each VP category, we notice that, with one exception, most itemised VPs within the categories that are perceived to be relevant to the institution are also on the top of the list for researchers' own CBR practice. For example, respondents placed significant emphasis on 'Accountability' for both their own CBR practice and the practice of the institutional community as a whole. Most researchers suggested that, in terms of their own practice, accountability was primarily to their community partners. The excepted item was 'Researchers are accountable to the university' in the category of 'Accountability'. While 74.4 per cent of respondents perceived this principle to be relevant or very relevant to the institution, it did not pass the cut-off point for respondents' own CBR practice. Several participants also emphasised that researchers were accountable to outside funders; as one stated, 'In the excitement to collaborate we sometimes forget who is the funder and it is the funder who ultimately pulls the strings.'

Although there are two VPs ('Equitable participation' and 'Self-determination') for which respondents indicated equal numbers of itemised VPs as relevant to both their research and that of the university as an institution, there are major differences in most categories. The greatest differences were in the categories of 'Reciprocity' and 'Reflexivity'. Filtered by the cut-off point (67 per cent), 67 out of the 88 itemised VPs included in the survey were thought to be relevant or very

relevant to respondents' own CBR practice and only 33 to the practice of the institution.

Importance of VP Categories

Many VPs inform CBR practice; however, not all bear the same importance. In Round 3 of the survey, we asked respondents to rank the perceived importance of the 11 VP categories to their own CBR practice and that of the institution. Comparing the percentage ranking of importance for almost all VP categories, respondents tended to assign a lower importance to the work of the institution than to their own work (Table 6). 'Collaboration/partnership' and 'Accountability' topped both lists, albeit in different order. To illustrate, one participant asserted: 'CBR respects diverse epistemologies and ontologies'; another stated, 'All who are actively involved in the research are accountable to each other and to an ethical research process'. The difference in perceived importance was greatest for 'Equitable participation', 'Empowerment' and 'Self-determination'. These differences may reflect many CBR researchers' uncertainty about the extent to which the university, as an institution, respects and supports their CBR work. As suggested by one respondent:

I believe as an organization [our university] is most interested in outcomes rather [than process]. This stems from the discourse about research (and other) excellence wherein funding dollars, prestige and numbers of publications still appear to be valued most highly.

Next, we present our reflections on the findings outlined above and suggest some implications for CBR researchers.

Discussion and implications

Our findings indicate that researchers engaging in CBR have diverse understandings of the nature of CBR. Despite this diversity, the findings show some consensus among respondents on VPs that are central to the practice of CBR. The final list of itemised VPs may fill a gap in the literature. Here, we highlight a few observations on the dis-

crepancies we identified with respect to participants' perspectives on relationships, power and action for social change. We then interweave these observations with reflections on the Delphi research process, especially with regard to the political nature of CBR.

The Ethics of CBR

As shown in the literature, CBR is a value-driven research approach. However, while there was broad agreement on the importance of trust, respect, collaboration, partnership and dialogue across disciplines, each CBR researcher tended to adhere to different VPs.

Values and principles related to Indigeneity raised some concerns among participants. Research is viewed negatively by many members of Indigenous groups because it has been used as a tool of exploitation and colonialism (Smith 2012). Some researchers see CBR as a potential means of overcoming these issues and addressing past harms, but it is not possible to simply insert an Indigenous worldview into the dominant research paradigm, which is based on the belief that knowledge is an individual entity. Conversely, Indigenous paradigms arise from the fundamental belief that knowledge is relational and experiential (Wilson 2008). These ideas raise the question of what it means to take Indigenous worldviews seriously when some researchers do not see decolonisation as a meaningful research objective. There was a sense among some respondents that anti-colonial frameworks and respect for Indigenous epistemologies were only relevant when Indigenous people were directly involved in the research. From a decolonial perspective, this is problematic as we are all (settlers and Indigenous) negatively affected by colonial structures and, arguably, collectively share responsibility to address these structures in society.

Participants pointed to the importance of respecting diverse ontologies and epistemologies, but also emphasised that not all

worldviews should be respected (e.g. Nazism). Still, most participants agreed that CBR is an 'ethical research practice'. Although 'ethical' was not defined precisely, such comments seem to imply that not all research is or has been ethical, a point which is also made strongly in the literature (e.g. Smith 2012). The high ranking accorded collaboration/partnership in the survey is consistent with the major discussion in the literature, reflecting the nature of CBR as a collaborative project (Brydon-Miller & Maguire 2009; CAMH 2011; Elliott 2012). Indeed, this is the VP that was least contested. In other words, there was a lot of agreement on the means (collaboration) and less on the ends (e.g. decolonisation, production of new knowledge) of CBR, and also whether power relations should form a consideration. Questions were also raised about the nature of the relationship in terms of whether solidarity was a desirable element. It is somewhat surprising to us that many researchers who are engaged in collaborative partnerships with community partners resisted characterisation of their research as 'political', when equitable inclusion (which all respondents acknowledged as important) is an overtly political intervention that challenges university hierarchies of knowledge production (Stanton 2014). On the other hand, if CBR is being conducted with powerful groups who hold reprehensible worldviews, ensuring equitable inclusion may be problematic for researchers committed to both CBR and social justice.

While we are cognisant that the final list of VPs is a result of consensus based on the majority rule, i.e. an artificial cut-off point, it has provided a common base from which CBR researchers can engage in dialogue among themselves as well as with their stakeholders, particularly the university administration. The following observations may be useful for CBR researchers who have to negotiate their work constantly with their affiliated institution. It is not uncommon to hear CBR researchers complain that their work is not treasured, particularly under the current neo-liberal managerial atmosphere of the academic setting.

First, in terms of importance, respondents proposed a similar ranking of the categorical VPs for both their own CBR practice and their expectation of their institutions. However, 67 VPs were considered to be relevant or very relevant to respondents' own CBR practice compared to 33 for the institution; among the 33 itemised VPs deemed relevant to the university community, eight (24 per cent) concern 'Accountability'. In other words, there is a perception that the institution is concerned most with accountability and publications and less with relationship building, which accords with the broader neoliberal context. CBR researchers, even those who resist the characterisation of CBR as political, seem to want to insert ethical considerations into research processes, while the university is more concerned with measurable outcomes in terms of publications. Finally, principles such as 'Values process and outcomes', 'Long-term relationships' and 'Reflexivity' seem to matter to respondents' own practice more than to that of the university as an institution. This may reflect respondents' perception of the administrative emphasis of the university as an institutional organisation or a cynical attitude on the part of researchers who feel their research is not held in high regard by their institution. Indeed, it is this perceived lack of regard that lay behind the creation of the CBR initiative at the university in question.

The Politics of CBR

Questions of power are inherently political because, in broad terms, politics concerns the distribution of power and resources in society. Coming from social work, education and geography disciplinary backgrounds, we had understood CBR and indeed all research to be 'political'. However, some of the responses we received to the survey reveal that this is not the view of all CBR researchers. Here we explore the implications of respondents' differing perspectives on equality/equity, anti-oppression and objectivity.

It became evident early in the study that, when we tried to define CBR, many tensions emerged amongst faculty members in various disciplines, between those doing more quantitative research than qualitative re-

search, and between faculty and community members and researchers and their institution. Interestingly, the main tensions seemed to be rooted in the epistemological, ontological and axiological positions of the respondents, which were closely tied to their discipline and institutional context. This was further complicated by the reality that, despite our efforts as researchers to be as inclusive as possible through various recruitment methods, including institution-wide invitations, faculty-wide invitations and personal invitations, our participants were inevitably only partially representative of the faculty, staff and university community. The absence of many voices led us to question the ethical nature of the research that we were undertaking, especially when we read many of the comments on the study in Round 3 concerning the importance of respecting diverse epistemologies, addressing power imbalances and accountability to an 'ethical research process'.

Admittedly, the consensus-seeking nature of the Delphi approach might have further marginalised some political views held by CBR researchers from some disciplines and, as a result, in many 'political' VPs being eliminated. Most participants agreed that building equality or equity in relationships means addressing power explicitly; however, based on the 67 per cent cut-off, itemised VPs that included openly political terms such as power, anti-oppression, Indigenous and anti-colonial were dropped following the first round. In other words, at least among the respondents to this study, most did not agree with the 'political' nature of CBR. However, some respondents in the second round expressed concerns with this result. We realised that we did not have the means, given that the consensus of the group determined the final list of VPs, to deeply address the many tensions and systemic inequities that seemed to mark the texts of the survey responses. Fortunately, some members of the study spoke up during our workshop after

Round 1 and consensus was reached to reinstate several VPs that otherwise would have been eliminated from the final list, due mainly, in our view, to the absence of certain marginalised voices, disciplines and non-mainstream approaches to research in the survey process. This was due in part to systemic inequities and institutional absences. Removing the most overtly politicised VPs was perceived by some respondents to leave academic researchers in the privileged position that many scholars claim CBR is supposed to redress, and perhaps to undermine decolonial and anti-oppressive methodologies. In short, the tendency of the majority of respondents to opt for a relatively objective and apolitical position was viewed by others as masking what were fundamental issues of injustice which have significant impact on institutional practice of tenure, promotion and ethical approaches to CBR.

These findings raise many questions. What does it mean to suggest that CBR (or, indeed, any research) is non- or apolitical? What are the implications of resisting acknowledgement of the political nature of research? One of the critiques of objectivity in the literature is that it has been used to subordinate research subjects within specific projects as well as CBR researchers in the academy (Absolon & Willett 2005; Deloria 1997; Wells & Jones 2009). Is it possible or desirable to acknowledge one's positionality and simultaneously claim objectivity? Why do some researchers resist designating their research anti-oppressive or anti-colonial? What are the effects of this resistance for researchers, research participants, and CBR more broadly?

What is CBR for?

Building on the debate over the political nature of CBR, the question of whether positive social change was a meaningful research objective was also contested by participants. Although respondents agreed that CBR results should benefit all participants, there was less agreement on whether improving

lives was a desirable or reasonable goal of CBR. It is interesting to note in this context that no itemised VP from the category of 'Empowerment' passed the cut-off point.

Related to these questions, for some researchers critiquing the (presumably inequitable) status quo was crucial to their practice, while others argued that the status quo was not always in need of critique and that the goal of CBR should be discovery and knowledge creation. Yet, we wonder if CBR is simply aimed at the creation of new knowledge, how can researchers avoid reinscribing colonial relations or repeating the mistakes of past research that mined community members for their 'data' without improving their lives?

To be critical of power relationships implies the desire for change. We expected to see these concerns reflected in our findings. Although 'Action for positive social change' remained important for many participants, 'Transformation of fundamental structures' was removed after the first round. Once again, the more overtly political actions tended to be rejected. In other words, there was some agreement that action is an important principle of CBR, but much less agreement on the nature of the action, for example, whether the goal of action is to further decolonisation or something more mundane (e.g. publication of a report). This goes to the heart of the disagreement among participants: is CBR a political research approach aimed at action to improve lives, or is it an objective research approach that seeks to create new knowledge? Can it be both?

Implications for future research

Based on the findings and our related reflections, we propose the following additional questions about CBR may be worth exploring further:

What does 'political' mean in the context of CBR, and how political should CBR be?

As a research method, should CBR have a 'predetermined' outcome?

Does CBR require different forms of accountability compared to other methodologies?

Is 'action' an objective of CBR? What is the relationship between CBR, action and justice?

Is CBR only for marginalised/colonised groups? To what extent should CBR be informed by a particular discourse?

Is there any element that distinguishes CBR from other research approaches on which all CBR researchers could agree? Should CBR be defined?

To conclude, CBR is a growing research approach increasingly being adopted by researchers from diverse disciplines. While the findings reported here may fill a gap in the literature on which values and principles matter to CBR, they also raise additional questions for further exploration. The diverse perspectives on the political and action-oriented nature of CBR comprise an important issue that researchers and community members whose work comes under the CBR banner should address as more and more academic institutions begin to emphasise the importance of community-based research.

NOTE: Readers who would like to view the complete list of itemised VPs should contact the lead author.

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A Linguist's Journey Toward Community Engaged Scholarship: Insights on Definitions, Practice and Evaluation Policies

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Abstract

This article is a critical reflection of a linguist's journey towards community-engaged scholarship (CES). It presents insights gained from this process on how researchers in disciplines less known outside academia can begin to conduct CES, and on the current conversation surrounding the various definitions of CES and their interpretation for the tenure and promotion process. Over the past two decades, a welcome shift has been experienced by academia as universities and national organisations supporting them place ever-growing importance on meaningful research and knowledge arising from faculty-community partnerships because of the mutual benefit promised by such collaborations.

Keywords: *critical reflection, process, academia, current conversation.*

Introduction

This article is a critical reflection of a linguist's journey towards community-engaged scholarship (CES). It presents insights gained from this process on how researchers in disciplines less known outside academia can begin to conduct CES, and on the current conversation surrounding the various definitions of CES and their interpretation for the tenure and promotion process. Over the past two decades, a welcome shift has been experienced by academia as universities and national organisations supporting them place ever-growing importance on meaningful research and knowledge arising from faculty-community partnerships because of the mutual benefit promised by such collaborations (Boyer 1996). This does not mean that such

meaningful work did not exist before, rather that it has taken centre stage (Fitzgerald et al. 2016; Gelmon, Jordan & Seifer 2013; Morrison & Wagner 2016). Current approaches to engaged scholarship reside on the understanding that academia is not the exclusive generator of knowledge, and that non-academic settings are a source of tremendous learning opportunities and scholarship (Boyer 1996; Fitzgerald et al. 2016). Furthermore, the current view of engagement 'posits a new framework of scholarship that moves away from emphasizing products to emphasizing impact' (Fitzgerald et al. 2016). However, practice has lagged behind promise (Ward & Miller 2016). Given the requirements and expectations of academics, such as the role of scholarship (publications) in tenure and

promotion, and the creation of opportunities for students to engage in work with the community, exactly what counts as scholarship in the community has been the subject of much debate (Barker 2004; Fitzgerald et al. 2016; Gelmon, Jordan & Seifer 2013; Janke & Colbeck 2008; O'Meara & Niehaus 2009; Sandmann 2008; Wade & Demb 2009, 2012).

Because of the complexity surrounding the factors that influence faculty engagement (e.g. beliefs about student learning, pedagogy, connections to community, shared epistemology), it has been difficult to find a common definition of engaged scholarship (Morrison & Wagner 2016). In this article I argue that a prescribed common definition is, in fact, not possible or desirable. In general, community-engaged scholarship is 'scholarship that involves a mutually beneficial partnership with community members or organisations outside of the academy' (Commission on Community-Engaged Scholarship in the Health Professions 2005). However, because work with community partners includes service-learning, community-based participatory research and other types of community-based work, and because the conversation about how CES is defined is ongoing, some scholars wonder whether their research in the community qualifies as CES for purposes of tenure and promotion (Calleson, Jordan & Seifer 2005; Furco 2010; Gelmon, Jordan & Seifer 2013). In an effort to support their faculty members, individual universities develop their own definitions – in itself an acknowledgement of the ongoing conversation.

Based on my experience as a linguist starting on a path towards CES, I argue that existing definitions and their campus-level adaptations can unintentionally limit understanding of what CES is for some disciplines, including linguistics. For scholars in these disciplines that are little known outside academia, the path towards CES is much longer than for those in fields that are better understood by the general public, such as STEM disciplines and public health, the birthplace of

CES, and steps taken along the way should be recognised by institutions (<https://www.ccphealth.org/>); Maurana et al. 2001). While developing trusting, meaningful relationships with community partners – a prerequisite for CES – is time-consuming and labour-intensive for anyone, regardless of discipline, I argue that some scholarly fields face an additional challenge because the community (here, anyone outside academia) is unfamiliar with their existence and the objectives of the discipline in the first place.

As a linguist who primarily teaches prospective K-8 teachers, my interest in CES is fuelled by a desire to promote the personal and societal benefits of the scientific study of language to the broader community. Here, I use 'broader community' to refer in general to people outside academia who may otherwise never consider the benefits of linguistics as they navigate the multiple communities to which they belong. The idea of community has typically been tied to place (Dunham 1986); however, as language users and active social beings, we all belong to various communities, some defined by place, some by language, and some by other means such as common interests and undertakings (Bloomfield 1933; Gumperz 1971; Labov 1972). For the purpose of this article, the community is viewed more specifically as a classroom with students and teachers, and it is also further extended to the school, the students' and teachers' families, and to those with whom they interact (Battistich et al. 1995; Brown 1997). While the benefits of understanding language from a scientific perspective are obvious to linguists, they are not immediately obvious to the community. Of utmost importance is the issue of social justice centring around language use and recognition that all dialects of a language are linguistically equal. While most forms of expressing prejudice are frowned upon, overt discrimination based on language is still accepted today because the general public does not understand how language works. Thus, non-standard dia-

lects of English as well as various immigrant languages are viewed as 'bad' and therefore speakers of those language varieties are viewed as less valuable members of society (Baugh 2005; Crawford 1995). A clear case for understanding linguistic diversity as an issue of social justice is presented by bilingual education, which has historically been viewed as an issue for ethnic minority students. Policies have generally favoured the linguistic and cultural majority, with most bilingual programs resulting in monolingualism rather than bilingualism. By making knowledge about language and linguistics accessible to those outside academia, transforming current practices into 'communally-based practices of global learning' can lead to achievable goals of bilingualism, biculturalism, and biliteracy both for ethnic minority and ethnic majority students (Akkari & Loomis 1998, 2012). With a better understanding of language via linguistic study prior to college, students and teachers would begin a ripple effect that would eventually spread throughout their communities, leading to less language-based discrimination. Furthermore, this would have a greater societal impact than studying linguistics only in college, as not every student attends college, and not every college student studies linguistics. To get to this point, however, students and teachers need to understand the building blocks of language and language development in order to arrive at the conclusion that all language varieties are linguistically equal; this can be achieved via working partnerships between linguists and K-12 schools. Nevertheless, because of the disconnect between what linguistics is and does, and the community's unfamiliarity with or lack of understanding of linguistics, establishing such partnerships in a way that is mutually beneficial and not driven by the academy is extremely time-consuming. Teachers need time to understand the potential contributions of linguistics to themselves and their students, and their potential contributions to the academy; the linguist has to do the same.

While I am now engaged in such a partnership with a teacher at a local middle school, it took more than two years to develop a relationship based on mutual trust which, in turn, brought us to the point where

we could begin a truly bidirectional partnership that also involved scholarship – in the sense of outcomes that are 'rigorous and peer-reviewed' (Gelmon et al. 2012). In this article I reflect critically on insights gained from this process and offer linguists and scholars from other lesser known disciplines suggestions for becoming involved in CES, as well as encourage them to challenge the definitions of CES and their interpretation for the tenure and promotion process.

CES definitions and their interpretations

Over the past two decades CES has been identified as one of the core missions of higher education (Boyer 1996; Gelmon et al. 2013, p. 58). One goal of CES is for disciplinary faculty to use their expertise in collaboration with community partners, thereby simultaneously creating new knowledge and contributing to the public good. This has been highly appealing to universities and researchers who want to take their work outside academia and create meaningful and mutually beneficial partnerships, responding to Boyer's (1996, p. 11) challenge for higher education to 'become a more vigorous partner in the search for answers to our most pressing social, civic, economic and moral problems and ... reaffirm its historic commitment to ... the scholarship of engagement' (*italics added*). While this sounds positive from all perspectives, it also presents some unexpected challenges. On the one hand, exactly how to define the 'scholarship of engagement' and community-engaged scholarship is still currently the subject of debate, which leaves room for differences in interpretation. On the other hand, current definitions assume that all disciplines should be able to engage in CES in the same way. Over the years, the term engaged scholarship (or scholarship of engagement) has referenced a multitude of university-community collaborative work, including service-learning, community-based participatory research, outreach, community development, and different forms of civic engagement (Calleson, Jordan & Seifer 2005; Gelmon, Jordan & Seifer 2013; Sandmann 2008). These different types of engagement obviously have different outcomes and levels of scholarship, which impact aspects of tenure and promotion expecta-

tions. Sandmann (2008, p. 101), in her review of the literature on what the scholarship of engagement has meant over the years, concludes that CES is 'still emerging from its "definitional anarchy" and is still evolving as an interdisciplinary field for academic research'. Community-engaged scholarship currently combines 'the principles of community engagement with accepted standards of scholarship' (Gelmon, Jordan & Seifer 2013, p. 59), and is thus defined further at the level of the institution. This is an important point, because scholars work both within their broader disciplinary framework and within the parameters established by their institutions. This may not be best practice, however, given the diversity of disciplines and the knowledge that communities have, or do not have, about those disciplines. Morrison and Wagner (2016) argue that the faculty perspective must be taken into account in the CES debate. In order to 'make sense of the complex list of factors influencing how faculty engage, their reasons for doing it, and how institutions can support them', we need to understand 'how faculty define and make meaning of CES for themselves' (Morrison & Wagner 2016, p. 9). And addressing the issue of potential research partnerships with non-academics, Ward and Miller (2016, p. 189) state, 'How the individual work of both faculty and staff is marginalized, valued, validated, recognized, and rewarded through formal promotion structures and processes remains an area of needed attention within and across institutions of higher education'. Therefore, an argument can be made that a monolithic definition of CES is neither possible nor desirable. Yet, faculty need guidance on how to situate their work.

The California State University (CSU) is the

With respect to the second point, the field of linguistics has already recognised the need to make linguistics better understood. If this were achieved, and people in the community understood 'linguistics' the way they

understand 'mathematics' (mathematics itself has its own issues with being misunderstood by the public, yet it is still better understood than linguistics), then the journey for a linguist wanting to engage in CES might be somewhat shortened. Some things are already being done to make this a reality, but the efforts are scattered across the country and conducted unsystematically by people like myself who are interested in this type of work. The Linguistics Society of America encourages public outreach, including participation in STEM events where community members can see language as a science, and has a committee on Language in the School Curriculum charged with exploring and pursuing 'ways in which the linguistics community can have an effect on school instruction in language-related topics, including linguistics' (Linguistics Society of America website). Current efforts include exploring more ways to incorporate linguistics in schools and encouraging more university faculty to partner with teachers, particularly at the high-school level, to introduce linguistics to students. In addition, linguists can follow the models of Connor, Rubin and Zarcadoolas, who have successfully merged their linguistics interests and professional training with public health (Ellis, Connor & Marshall 2014; Parmer et al. 2015; Zarcadoolas, Pleasant & Greer 2005). To these efforts I would add volunteerism, collaboration between linguists and faculty members in other disciplines to seek convergent goals and possible partnerships (Anderson 2017) and working with university students who are studying to be teachers (see also Denham & Lobeck 2010 and Fillmore & Snow 2000).

Based on my experience, a linguist-teacher partnership requires a lot of volunteer time; therefore, linguists interested in pursuing this type of work should consider carefully their reasons for doing so (short-term product, long-term impact and product), the time they have to devote to it, and the level of departmental and institutional support.

It is also critical that, in pursuing such a partnership, the linguist respond to the teacher's and their students' needs, which may require classroom observation, becoming familiar with state standards, and having open discussions about the needs identified by the teacher and how linguistics can provide inquiry-based creative ways of addressing those needs. Because volunteering may not always be recognised as an academic pursuit, when discussing this work for the purpose of tenure or promotion, faculty members should highlight the contribution of the collaboration to the community and to their own professional development, as I have done here: it is a pathway towards CES and the work itself has academic value. Furthermore, as more faculty members become involved in community-engaged work (whether service-learning or CES), linguists should seek out collaboration with faculty in other disciplines with whom they may share similar perspectives on CES (Morrison & Wagner 2016).

While it is unrealistic and impractical to have a linguist conducting CES in every K–12 classroom, linguists who work with future teachers at the undergraduate level have the opportunity to make this type of work relevant and to prepare their students to become teachers who will use linguistics in their classrooms for all its individual and societal benefits. Linguists need to develop partnerships with teachers so that they can tailor college-level linguistics curricula accordingly. One can envision an undergraduate course where prospective teachers regularly engage with students in schools with which the instructors (linguists) have established partnerships and actually conduct research. The prospective teachers might discuss the role of linguistics in education with each other and with their instructor, meet with the public school teachers, and together establish some research topic of interest to both (e.g. how can students learn what sentence fragments are, and how can they edit their own writing for fragments?). The prospective teachers might subsequently (1) discuss linguistically informed approaches to understanding fragments, such as inquiry-based exercises that illustrate what fragments are and how they are not always 'bad' as is typically taught

(they are actually desirable in spoken language); (2) hypothesise what types of activities would lead students to recognise and edit fragments in their own writing; and (3) conduct research in the classroom to evaluate whether those methods were successful and whether students understood that there is a difference between spoken and written language. This discussion could be extended further to differences in registers and dialects, and has the potential to positively contribute to the public good.

Linguists who do not work specifically with future teachers would benefit from highlighting this type of work in their classes as well. Most undergraduates in linguistics do not go on to become researchers, but rather become technical writers, lawyers, speech and language pathologists, or foreign language teachers. K–12 education is a profession they should consider, and it might be one they would consider if the connections between linguistics and education were made evident. Researchers and teachers in fields that are in a similar situation to linguistics would benefit from the same suggestions offered above. Whatever the field, finding service opportunities in order to develop relationships with community partners can lead to the development of a CES project. One can even envision a service-to-CES pathway where faculty and students engage in service-learning opportunities, building trusting partnerships between the university and the community partner, which then leads to CES (Vogel & Seifer 2011). Service-learning can be used towards this goal, as in the case of prospective teachers working with linguistically and culturally diverse students as they themselves build sociolinguistic knowledge and language skills that they can use in their future classrooms (Fan 2013). Subsequently, this work can lead to CES for students and linguists alike.

Designing a university curriculum that emphasises the role of the discipline to the broader community will create citizens who take that knowledge into the community. As scholars in these fields, we need to adopt a long-term perspective and expect future generations to have a better understanding of

these lesser known fields than has the current generation.

Conclusions

Community-engaged scholarship is encouraged by universities and funding agencies as it offers opportunities for conducting meaningful work with community partners for the mutual benefit of the community and the researcher. As such, CES is both a challenging and a rewarding avenue for research, as well as a high-stakes item in the review process for tenure and promotion. These two factors, the topic of this article, have different implications given the current conversation in the CES field. As a relatively new concept that incorporates scholarship in community-engaged work, CES is still being redefined, even at the individual university level. Current definitions and their interpretations can be too restrictive for disciplines that are not well understood outside academia, such as linguistics, thereby creating unanticipated challenges. While CES requires a significant investment of time for any faculty dedicated to cultivating trust-based community relationships – a prerequisite for CES work – faculty in these disciplines have to spend much more time not only cultivating the partnership, but also making the discipline and its benefits understandable to the partner without resorting to a top-down approach to re-

search (where the academic imposes the research on the partner). This is necessary in order for both partner and researcher to arrive at a mutually beneficial project, which is a fundamental expectation of CES. A more prescribed definition, set at institutional level, can have the unintentional effect of limiting understanding of what CES can be, and in effect discourage the pursuit of CES by some disciplines.

Based on my personal experience with the process of engaging in CES as a linguist, I have offered suggestions for linguists and academics in similar disciplines on how to begin such work and how to advocate for such work to be recognised for tenure and promotion purposes. The faculty member can seek out service opportunities in the community to learn about the potential partner's needs and inform them about their discipline as part of the partnership negotiation process. Further, they can suggest and advocate for the creation of university policies that take the lengthy and complex preliminary work of CES into account as part of the faculty member's scholarly work for the tenure and promotion process, and they can also participate in activities that will make their discipline more accessible to the public, thereby shortening the process in the long term.

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48. .Expectations of Field Supervisors in Kenya: Implications for Community-based Human Service Practicums

Opportunities for undergraduate students Developing disciplinary

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Abstract

There are also many benefits arising from this form of learning for universities. Community-based learning experiences can help improve the image of universities among professionals and the public (Mgaya & Mbekomize 2014). One of the major benefits to universities is in strengthening linkages with host organisations, which may lead to the identification of new research opportunities and funding (Paul 2009). Universities may use CBL programs to market their courses and their graduates, which may lead to sustained or improved admission of students and employability of their graduates (Cooper & Orrell n.d.). Inclusion of CBL opportunities in higher education programs is important because it contributes to the development of professional competencies that may not be fostered in traditional classroom settings. This enables academic programs to respond to and meet the emerging job market needs of their respective programs, and thus enhance employability of their graduates, since they gain practical transferrable skills that employers look for (Haneef, Yusof & Amin 2006).

Keywords: education, respective programs, transferrable skills

Introduction

One of the chief responsibilities of institutions of higher learning is providing students with appropriate disciplinary knowledge, skills and experiences that prepare them to tackle the multitude of issues they will encounter when they enter the workforce. Attention to the role of universities in preparing youth for the workforce has intensified in recent years, especially in

African countries where there has been exponential growth in university enrolment and concerns raised about the quality of education students are receiving (Gudo, Olel & Oanda 2011; Nyangau 2014; Odhiambo 2014; Waruru 2015). Community-based learning (CBL) experiences such as service-learning, practicums and internship opportunities for undergraduate students are increasingly becoming an integral component of African higher education

(Dorasamy & Pillay 2010; Ferguson & Smith 2012). While there are many variations in how CBL is defined, there is broad consensus that this form of learning involves relevant and meaningful service activities in community settings to assist students in integrating their academic knowledge with practice in the field, providing them with opportunities to reflect critically on their learning and achieve academic, personal and civic learning objectives (Clayton, Bringle & Hatcher 2013).

Almost two decades ago, Cruz and Giles (2000) noted the paucity of research examining the concerns of community partner organisations and staff. While inroads have been made, this perspective continues to be underrepresented in the literature, with the partnership landscape in Kenya still uncharted. The aim of this study is to describe the issues faced by field supervisors of undergraduate practicum students. These field supervisors are employed by community organisations providing human services in Kenya. With a deeper understanding of the issues and concerns of field supervisors, steps can be taken to address issues and, where possible, remedy concerns.

The value of CBL experiences for university undergraduate students, the university and the host organisation is well-documented in research conducted in the North American context (Astin, Sax & Avalos 1999; Kuh 2008; Peters 2014; Zlotkowski 1998). Benefits for students can be grouped into four broad categories of educational, social, civic, and vocational/professional (e.g. Astin, Sax & Avalos 1999; Batchelder & Root 1994; Cantor 1995; Giles & Eyler 1994; Steinke & Buresh 2002; Tiessen & Heron 2012).

Thus, it is not surprising that there is an increasing focus on developing and expanding CBL programs. This growth places great pressure on programs, especially those that provide experiential or work-integrated learning experiences to bridge the gap between academia and students' chosen careers (Oanda & Jowi 2012; Owuor 2007).

The participating host organisations gain access to an unpaid or partially compensated labour force who have a wealth of

contemporary theoretical knowledge and are keen to apply such knowledge (Mgaya & Mbekomize 2014). Bridging the gap between academic programs and the needs of the job market can be supported through a range of well-designed CBL experiences such as practicums; however, our knowledge of what students and community organisations need in order to improve CBL experiences for all stakeholders has not kept pace (Gower & Mulvaney 2012; Teichler 2011).

Community-based Learning in a Kenyan Context

Higher education in Kenya has been undergoing rapid and dynamic change as efforts have been made to align learning programs with national development priorities stipulated in policy documents, such as Kenya Vision 2030 (Odhiambo 2014; Republic of Kenya 2007). According to the Kenya Vision 2030 Second Medium Term Plan, the government will focus on matching education and training with the demand for skills required in the workplace (Republic of Kenya 2013). Relevant objectives for universities included in this nationwide initiative relate to the need to incorporate CBL for all students in higher education to enable them to acquire necessary on-the-job training skills before graduation.

Graduates from programs, such as Family and Community Sciences and related human services disciplines, face many challenges as employees with a broad range of human services organisations and government departments strive to address contemporary social and economic problems in communities throughout the country. Community-based learning experiences are especially vital for students enrolled in these types of programs in developing countries, such as Kenya, due to huge disparities in income, education and gender equity.

The power of CBL is enhanced when supported by best practices; however, evidence to enhance current practice is much less abundant in the African context than in North America. There are several examples of research studies examining community-based learning in the African context (Dorasamy & Pillay 2010; Linda, Mtshali &

Engelbrecht 2013; Naidoo & Devnarain 2009; Roos et al. 2005; Thomson et al. 2011), while others have conducted comparative studies of North American and Africanised models of CBL (Hatcher & Erasmus 2008; Stanton & Erasmus 2013). Using the educational philosophies of Dewey (North America) and Nyerere (Africa) to better understand these models, Hatcher and Erasmus (2008) reported that both systems expected CBL experiences to be transformative, enabling students to understand and relate to their real-world learning experiences in ways that would generate positive change for communities. Other South African studies emphasised that students in African higher education institutions needed more CBL opportunities to become professionally confident and competent, and be able to make deeper connections between their theoretical knowledge and professional skills through their CBL activities in the community (Dorasamy & Pillay 2010; Roos et al. 2005). Studies have also noted that understanding the CBL context plays a significant role in students' engagement and learning and in students gaining meaningful and productive experience (Alexander & Khabanyane 2013; Bheekie & van Huyssteen 2015; Bringle & Hatcher 2007). Similar findings have been observed with regard to the quality of CBL learning and longer term goals of community engagement (Linda, Mtshali & Engelbrecht 2013; Mahlomaholo & Matobako 2006; Osman & Castle 2006).

While there is a growing body of literature examining service-learning in South Africa, few studies have been conducted in Kenya. Opiyo-Newa (2012) conducted an assessment of internships and CBL programs at one university and found that students had positive attitudes towards CBL opportunities, but their writing and research skills needed improvement in order to achieve their learning outcomes. In an assessment of the Students' Community

Service Program at their institution, Tumuti et al. (2013) found that two-week CBL experiences allowed students to develop a variety of skills valued by Kenyan employers, such as communication and interpersonal skills, learning and problem-solving, and self-development skills. They note the benefits of this program in countering criticism of the Kenyan educational system for alienating students from the lived realities of their communities resulting from its preoccupation with testing, training for white-collar employment and focus on globalisation at the expense of local needs. Finally, in a project related to this current study, challenges encountered by field supervisors were identified and used to inform the development of a new course to prepare students for CBL experiences (Kathuri-Ogola et al. 2015; VanLeeuwen et al. 2018). These challenges included helping Kenyan students to develop reflective practice skills, articulating CBL learning goals, preparing students for demanding situations and workplaces, facilitating students' development in interpersonal communication, and a lack of understanding of students' field experiences. Thus, it is recognised that CBL is very desirable within the Kenyan context, and the implementation of these programs is key to their success for the various stakeholders.

Implementing Community-Based

In this section, we first highlight and discuss several key findings from our study and identify several recommendations based on our findings. This is followed by a discussion of the limitations of this study and suggestions for future research.

From a holistic examination of our results, we came to the realisation that many of the relationships examined in this project align with Enos and Morton's (2003) transactional relationships since they operate within existing structures in which partners come together because each has something that the other perceives as useful. The CBL

relationships in this instance could be characterised as instrumental, with limited commitments and minimum disruption of the regular work of the organisation.

Our findings indicated that there were reciprocal benefits for the students and the organisations, such as students utilising their knowledge to contribute to program development in the organisations. It is important that organisations hosting CBL students understand that benefits to the organisations can result when students are given the opportunity to apply their theoretical knowledge (Mgaya & Mbekomize 2014), in addition to students gaining important applied professional experience (Astin, Sax & Avalos 1999; Giles & Eyler 1994).

One challenge identified that could limit the benefit of the CBL experience was that the field supervisors often had very little or no prior notification that they would be supervising a practicum student, resulting in a lack of adequate preparation to host the student. In addition, limited resources meant that many host organisations did not have orientation programs or a supportive infrastructure for student practicum activities. Faced with these situations, the field supervisors assigned tasks and duties randomly with little or no regard to the students' ability or learning goals. Such mismatched activities would certainly contribute to restricted learning (Olson & Montgomery 2000). However, an interesting finding was that, in some cases, this lack of planned activities for students on practicum enhanced creativity and innovativeness. This is an example of the resilience of some students who have the ability to both gain important knowledge and skills and contribute to the host organisation even when little or no planning or preparation has been made for their practicum experience within the host organisation. This experience during CBL can contribute to students gaining transformative real-world learning experiences (Hatcher & Erasmus 2008), especially in a country such as Kenya in which organisations have few resources to devote to planning or preparation for student learning experiences.

A key finding of this study is that we identified a lack of clarity around practicum expectations for most of the field supervisors interviewed. This was attributed to insufficient communication between the university and the host organisation and, at times, within the host organisation itself. This is a salient finding as poor communication can hinder collaborative relationships between practicum host organisations and universities (Bringle & Clayton 2013; Kathuri-Ogola et al. 2015; Sandy & Holland 2006). The field supervisors observed that there were weak or no formal structured linkages between their organisations and the university. This made it difficult for them to understand the student's learning goals, which resulted in wasting valuable time for practicum learning. This was made worse by poor orientation within the host organisation and between the host organisation and the university. These findings are particularly problematic if universities want to develop and maintain positive relationships with organisations and improve their image in the community (Mgaya & Mbekomize 2014). Other researchers have found that universities are perceived as taking resources from organisations, resulting in few benefits to the community (Nichols et al. 2013). It is clear that greater effort by universities is needed to develop stronger linkages with community organisations to ensure the sustainability and long-term success of these partnerships (Janke 2013). It is also clear that greater effort needs to be made to communicate and clarify expectations for field supervisors. Providing opportunities for field supervisors to be involved in both planning and implementing CBL could greatly contribute to improving clarity of practicum expectations and to greater engagement and benefits for the organisations (Miron & Moely 2006).

The community-based program included in this study is a relatively new program of study in Kenya and many field supervisors were not familiar with its content and structure. This resulted in the field supervisors having inconsistent expectations of the students' abilities. As a result, there were delays in assigning tasks and identifying op-

portunities that would contribute to students' learning objectives. This lack of awareness is understandable since, in Kenya, the human resource structure of most organisations is designed along the lines of traditional disciplines such as sociology, psychology, social work, political science, and development studies. However, the multifaceted nature of contemporary social problems requires both traditional and emerging disciplines to work towards systematic and sustainable solutions. Thus, in developing countries, such as Kenya, this means working towards ensuring that academic disciplines prepare graduates for the workplace (Republic of Kenya 2013).

The field supervisors had little or no understanding of the course structure and the centrality of the practicum in the fulfilment of its objectives. This led to delays in submission of the essential reporting materials and gaps in some key areas of student assessment. It was not surprising that some supervisors mentioned that the reporting format was both unclear and tedious. This was perhaps exacerbated by their viewing the task as additional to their normal workload yet not attracting commensurate compensation. The capacity of university faculty and staff to understand the perspective of the community partner has been identified as one of the top determinants of an effective relationship (Sandy & Holland 2006), so work is needed to address field supervisors' concerns associated with these administrative and assessment tasks.

Our results indicate that benefits could result from incorporating a pre-practicum experience in the curriculum. Enhanced preparation for the practicum experience could positively impact students' learning experience during practicum, thereby supporting national and United Nations efforts to promote quality education as leading to employment in developing countries, including Kenya (Republic of Kenya 2007). From our research in Kenya, we suggest that

the following should be incorporated in the program in preparation for the practicum experience: support for the development of reflective practice; articulation of practicum expectations; mental preparation for demanding situations; and enhanced interpersonal communication skills (VanLeeuwen et al. 2018). This pre-practicum preparation could take a number of forms, such as integration of brief CBL experiences into coursework prior to the practicum experience. For example, students could be required to complete volunteer work as part of the requirements of the program. This would create continuity in the learning process and exposure to community-based projects. Alternatively, it could be achieved through a series of guest speakers from relevant institutions or organisations serving various populations, or talks by members of the community. This could create partnership opportunities with host organisations and contribute to the role of staff in community organisations as co-educators (Leiderman et al. 2002).

Based on our findings, the practicum experience could be enhanced in five ways. (1) Holding structured and regular faculty-field supervisor consultative meetings could help to harmonise everyone's expectations of the practicum experience and the role that field supervisors have in the development of a learning contract. (2) Organising a tripartite orientation program, including students, field supervisors and faculty, to identify the opportunities, challenges and potential solutions to the challenges. This would entail involvement of the stakeholders in the development of orientation materials, which could be made available on the departmental website to reduce the cost of printing and updating material as knowledge evolves or the program curriculum changes. (3) Using standardised documentation to record challenges and report successes that address concerns raised by community partners. (4) Developing long-

term reciprocal partnerships between the university and host organisations. This would help to ensure that students gain required practical experience and further develop new skills that could lead to transformational learning and students being adequately prepared to work in a changing social, economic and political landscape. This form of arrangement would allow the host organisations to plan ahead for the arrival of students, and ensure that they receive adequate supervisory direction and support as well as access to the necessary physical and financial resources to follow through on their learning activities. In addition, this would allow community organisations to allocate time for student mentoring as part of the supervisors' workload, while making sure that essential work tasks were completed. (5) Supporting greater interaction between students, faculty and field supervisors in the development of student learning contracts. This would ensure that the student's goals and objectives for their practicum experience correspond with those of the host organisation's program and the designated field supervisor.

We identified several limitations of this study. The study was limited to one academic program of one university in Kenya, and the results may not be applicable to diverse academic programs in other countries. The department was relatively new, established seven years prior to the study in a non-traditional discipline. Results from a more established academic program may yield different results. Also, the responses were limited to the views of one field supervisor per organisation even in cases where the students had more than one point of supervision. The views of field supervisors willing to participate in this study may differ from those of other field supervisors.

The results of this study led to our identifying several topics for future research. It would be useful to conduct a more detailed examination of the role of the field supervisor in facilitating the development of students' professional knowledge and skill. Research that focuses on what field supervisors expect and how to effectively communicate this to students prior to the

practicum would also be beneficial. Further exploration of the effectiveness of learning contracts in communicating student learning expectations to their field supervisor would be useful in the further development of community-based practicums, as well as research on the role of student reflections during and after the practicum. This could help to clarify their prior expectations and their learning during the practicum, with regard to professional commitment and the development of professional identity as a new human services professional.

Conclusions

This study increases the knowledge base of CBL in the form of practicums in the Kenyan context. CBL is one way that higher education in Kenya can enhance the employability of graduates from Kenyan university programs and respond to and meet emerging labour market needs. Evidence from this study to support the development of best practices responsive to a local context fills a critical gap and encourages key stakeholders in their efforts to move forward with innovative approaches to identified challenges. Based on this study, it is clear that further efforts need to be made to ensure that field supervisors who are staff in community organisations that host students for CBL experiences, such as practicums, have opportunities to be involved in the planning of this type of CBL. This involvement will also help ensure that field supervisors have clear expectations of students' activities as they relate to their program of study and their own role in supervising students. Recommendations to improve relationships and partnerships are crucial to ensuring positive outcomes for both students and host organisations in the future.

While there is a growing body of literature examining service-learning in South Africa, few studies have been conducted in Kenya. Opiyo-Newa (2012) conducted an assessment of internships and CBL programs at one university and found that students had positive attitudes towards CBL opportunities, but their writing and research skills needed improvement in order to achieve their learning outcomes. In an

assessment of the Students' Community Service Program at their institution, Tumuti et al. (2013) found that two-week CBL experiences allowed students to develop a variety of skills valued by Kenyan employers, such as communication and interpersonal skills, learning and problem-solving, and self-development skills. They note the benefits of this program in countering criticism of the Kenyan educational system for alienating students from the lived realities of their communities resulting from its preoccupation with testing, training for white-collar employment and focus on globalisation at the expense of local needs. Finally, in a project related to this current study, challenges encountered by field supervisors were identified and used to inform the development of a new course to prepare students for CBL experiences (Kathuri-Ogola et al. 2015; VanLeeuwen et al. 2018). These challenges included helping Kenyan students to develop reflective practice skills, articulating CBL learning goals, preparing students for demanding situations and workplaces, facilitating students' development in interpersonal communication, and a lack of understanding of students' field experiences. Thus, it is recognised that CBL is very desirable within the Kenyan context, and the implementation of these programs is key to their success for the various stakeholders.

Methods

The community-based program at the university in Nairobi focuses on preparing graduates to deliver social services to individuals, families and communities. Emphasis is on the improvement of the welfare of people through community-based programs, which requires a thorough understanding of family and community dynamics. In order to prepare students effectively for these tasks, undergraduate students undertaking this program complete a mandatory 12-week block community-based

practicum at the end of their third year of study. The practicum is a structured work experience in a professional setting, during which the student applies and acquires disciplinary and work-related knowledge and skills. As such, the practicum builds upon a student's coursework in the program as well as links theory with practical application. Each student is supervised by a field supervisor, who is an employee of the host organisation and oversees the student's day-to-day work. In addition, each student is assigned a member of the university faculty who provides support and evaluates the student. The students are usually attached to community programs serving children, youth, women, men, families, or groups with special needs. Generally the focus is on professional human service at the community level.

Fifteen organisations that hosted third-year practicum students during the May–August 2013 practicum session were sampled using purposive maximum variation sampling (Patton 2015). These organisations were situated in both urban and rural locations and had male and female field supervisors. Invitations for field supervisors to participate in the research were issued through telephone calls by the research team.

One field supervisor in each organisation participated in a face-to-face interview with a member of the research team. The interview included questions about field supervisors' understanding of the department's expectations of student learning activities during the practicum, knowledge about the academic preparation of students in the program of study and challenges associated with the supervisory role. Each participant was invited to share any further suggestions they had, that the university could consider to enhance the academic preparation of students for their practicum. Ethical approval for the research was obtained prior to participant recruitment from

the Research Ethics Boards at the Kenyan university and the Canadian university where the investigators were employed at the time of data collection.

Qualitative data from the interviews with field supervisors was analysed using thematic analysis. An inductive six-step thematic analysis process was used to analyse the interview transcripts (Braun & Clarke 2006). This included steps of becoming familiar with the data, identifying initial themes, compiling a list of themes and sub-themes, organising the themes and sub-themes into a coding tree, naming and defining each theme, and providing a narrative description of the content of each sub-theme and illustrating them by selecting representative quotes. NVivo10 software was used to aid in organising the qualitative data. Since three researchers were involved in coding data, appropriate procedures to ensure consensus were used (Marshall 2011). These included collectively developing and defining the themes that emerged from the data. Then, two researchers independently coded the data, and then three researchers worked together to come to a consensus on the codes assigned to the data.

Results

A total of 15 field supervisors participated in the study. The field supervisors included six men and nine women. Fourteen of the field supervisors were drawn from non-governmental development agencies and one from a government department. The two overarching themes used to organise the data focused on those field supervisors who had clear expectations of the student practicum experience, and those who had unclear expectations of the student practicum experience.

Clear Expectations

Six field supervisors exhibited some level of understanding of the expectations of their role in working with practicum students. The main contributors to this clear understanding of supervision expectations were: explanations provided by the students about their curriculum at the university and supervisors' work-related experience. For one supervisor, this resulted from personal

experience rather than through prior interaction with the institutions of higher learning.

For me I understood because of my experience and exposure... I do resource mobilization and have had international exposure... with that experience I understood (FS13).

Another supervisor reported:

...when I told him [student] to give me the units he has covered [at university],...it gave me some ideas of what kind of support he really needs to be given... (FS10).

Unclear Expectations

Nine field supervisors indicated unclear expectations of the students' practicum experience. The two themes in which field supervisors experienced unclear expectations focused on: (1) student abilities, learning goals, and their contributions to the host organisations, and (2) the student's academic program of study and level and form of academic support by the university to supervisors.

UNCLEAR EXPECTATIONS ABOUT STUDENT ABILITIES, LEARNING GOALS AND CONTRIBUTIONS

Unclear expectations about student abilities emerged as a challenge. Most of the field supervisors interviewed indicated that they did not know what students were capable of, and it often took a long period of time to identify appropriate activities to assign to the students. A lack of understanding of the students' abilities resulted in unrealistically high expectations of students by their respective field supervisors. For example, some field supervisors assumed that the students would do day-to-day work activities without structured orientation and guidance.

Basically, the challenges of supervision come during the initial stages because first of all they [students] are new, it is their first time... and they are yet to internalize the project purpose and activities. Even after this, the first 2 to 3 weeks, they get a lot of difficulties (FS8).

Notably, some field supervisors were not clear about what the learning goals of the students were so that the organisation

could provide the necessary learning experiences.

At first I did not know because I told them that I felt they [students] were in the wrong place. Because yours [program] is Community Resource Management and we have no resources that we can manage at the District alone... I felt that they will not be able to learn or fit and get the required experience. But they have managed (FS7).

In some cases, the field supervisors indicated ways in which the students were able to make contributions to the host organisation, although they did not always have an expectation that this would be an outcome of the practicum. An interesting opportunity for creativity and innovation emerged for students who were placed in an environment in which there were no clear expectations of them. This was demonstrated in the flexibility and participatory approach adopted by some host organisations – they included the students in identifying the relevant activities and program they wished to be involved with.

We allow them to come up with an idea... or a program... we become open so they can come up with the ideas (FS6).

Students were also given the opportunity to be creative in defining their own experiences due to lack of expectations.

Some students come up with a write up of what they are supposed to do... so we come up with a timetable... so the interns program themselves (FS14).

UNCLEAR EXPECTATIONS ABOUT THE ACADEMIC PROGRAM AND ACADEMIC SUPPORT FOR SUPERVISORS

Field supervisors provided many examples of having unclear expectations about the academic program and the level and form of academic support provided to them and their organisations.

Now if maybe you can now plan on giving us the curriculum to understand or a short timetable to show what they normally do... (FS15).

Some field supervisors did not understand the course structure and the expected format for reporting on the progress of the students. This was highlighted by one of the field supervisors:

Basically if you have trainings, it can help us know in depth, what course they are taking and what kind of activities we need to engage them in because when they come here what we do is try to fit them into our system, but also I can't tell at the end of the day if it is working towards achieving the objective of the department (FS8).

To enhance their understanding of the practicum expectations, the field supervisors proposed improvement to and standardisation of documentation provided to the host organisation.

Normally, they [students] are supposed to come with documents indicating objectives... a form where they have their objectives so that when I am with them I can be able to know what they are to achieve at the end of the practicum (FS4).

Several field supervisors indicated that they expected the provision of an orientation program.

I had no idea what was expected from the students... because they were just brought to me to supervise them (FS2).

An orientation program could contribute greatly to a long-term and successful relationship between the host organisation and the academic program.

We need to first of all start a relationship with the institution and the department so that we are able to get clear information on expectations of the department and expectations of the students... so we are able to help them achieve the department's expectations and at the end of the day, we as an organisation achieve what we want from them and also help the students achieve some of their expectations (FS8).

Further, supervisors suggested that more interaction between field supervisors

and faculty members was needed before the practicum began.

You should call for a short 2 or 3 day induction for your supervisors so that when you send your students then you know they are in the right hands... because if a supervisor misinterprets the expectations then they may not be able to guide the students (FS13).

The field supervisors highlighted the importance of prior interaction with university faculty to harmonise expectations of the entire practicum placement.

When I started supervising them [students], I felt I should have met their lecturer before assigning duties to them (FS3).

In addition to more knowledge about the academic requirements and an orientation program, the field supervisors expected practicums to be coordinated to a greater extent. In some instances, there was random placement of students without matching their skills with appropriate activities within the host organisation. One field supervisor indicated:

If you know the students' area of specialization one would be able to place them in the appropriate department and allocate a relevant activity. ... but if you don't have a wider knowledge of what a student expects from the attachment you may assume and leave some things out which may be very important to the student (FS3).

In other cases, students were deployed to departments within the host organisations without clear terms of reference. In addition, the host organisations sometimes did not have adequate time to prepare to host students.

If we are informed before they come at least we can prepare a job description... Otherwise, if they just come without adequate prior notice, we will only allocate to them the most pressing job like filing which may not provide an avenue for adequate learning (FS4).

Discussion

In this section, we first highlight and discuss several key findings from our study and identify several recommendations based on our findings. This is followed by a

discussion of the limitations of this study and suggestions for future research.

From a holistic examination of our results, we came to the realisation that many of the relationships examined in this project align with Enos and Morton's (2003) transactional relationships since they operate within existing structures in which partners come together because each has something that the other perceives as useful. The CBL relationships in this instance could be characterised as instrumental, with limited commitments and minimum disruption of the regular work of the organisation.

Our findings indicated that there were reciprocal benefits for the students and the organisations, such as students utilising their knowledge to contribute to program development in the organisations. It is important that organisations hosting CBL students understand that benefits to the organisations can result when students are given the opportunity to apply their theoretical knowledge (Mgaya & Mbekomize 2014), in addition to students gaining important applied professional experience (Astin, Sax & Avalos 1999; Giles & Eyler 1994).

One challenge identified that could limit the benefit of the CBL experience was that the field supervisors often had very little or no prior notification that they would be supervising a practicum student, resulting in a lack of adequate preparation to host the student. In addition, limited resources meant that many host organisations did not have orientation programs or a supportive infrastructure for student practicum activities. Faced with these situations, the field supervisors assigned tasks and duties randomly with little or no regard to the students' ability or learning goals. Such mismatched activities would certainly contribute to restricted learning (Olson & Montgomery 2000). However, an interesting finding was that, in some cases, this lack of planned activities for students on practicum enhanced creativity and innovativeness. This is an example of the resilience of some students who have the ability to both gain important knowledge and skills and contribute to the host organisation even when little or no planning or preparation has been

made for their practicum experience within the host organisation. This experience during CBL can contribute to students gaining transformative real-world learning experiences (Hatcher & Erasmus 2008), especially in a country such as Kenya in which organisations have few resources to devote to planning or preparation for student learning experiences.

A key finding of this study is that we identified a lack of clarity around practicum expectations for most of the field supervisors interviewed. This was attributed to insufficient communication between the university and the host organisation and, at times, within the host organisation itself. This is a salient finding as poor communication can hinder collaborative relationships between practicum host organisations and universities (Bringle & Clayton 2013; Kathuri-Ogola et al. 2015; Sandy & Holland 2006). The field supervisors observed that there were weak or no formal structured linkages between their organisations and the university. This made it difficult for them to understand the student's learning goals, which resulted in wasting valuable time for practicum learning. This was made worse by poor orientation within the host organisation and between the host organisation and the university. These findings are particularly problematic if universities want to develop and maintain positive relationships with organisations and improve their image in the community (Mgaya & Mbekomize 2014). Other researchers have found that universities are perceived as taking resources from organisations, resulting in few benefits to the community (Nichols et al. 2013). It is clear that greater effort by universities is needed to develop stronger linkages with community organisations to ensure the sustainability and long-term success of these partnerships (Janke 2013). It is also clear that greater effort needs to be made to communicate and clarify expectations for field supervisors.

Providing opportunities for field supervisors to be involved in both planning and implementing CBL could greatly contribute to improving clarity of practicum expectations and to greater engagement and benefits for the organisations (Miron & Moely 2006).

The community-based program included in this study is a relatively new program of study in Kenya and many field supervisors were not familiar with its content and structure. This resulted in the field supervisors having inconsistent expectations of the students' abilities. As a result, there were delays in assigning tasks and identifying opportunities that would contribute to students' learning objectives. This lack of awareness is understandable since, in Kenya, the human resource structure of most organisations is designed along the lines of traditional disciplines such as sociology, psychology, social work, political science, and development studies. However, the multifaceted nature of contemporary social problems requires both traditional and emerging disciplines to work towards systematic and sustainable solutions. Thus, in developing countries, such as Kenya, this means working towards ensuring that academic disciplines prepare graduates for the workplace (Republic of Kenya 2013).

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work is needed to address field supervisors' concerns associated with these administrative and assessment tasks.

Our results indicate that benefits could result from incorporating a pre-practicum experience in the curriculum. Enhanced preparation for the practicum experience could positively impact students' learning experience during practicum, thereby supporting national and United Nations efforts to promote quality education as leading to employment in developing countries, including Kenya (Republic of Kenya 2007). From our research in Kenya, we suggest that the following should be incorporated in the program in preparation for the practicum experience: support for the development of reflective practice; articulation of practicum expectations; mental preparation for demanding situations; and enhanced interpersonal communication skills (VanLeeuwen et al. 2018). This pre-practicum preparation could take a number of forms, such as integration of brief CBL experiences into coursework prior to the practicum experience. For example, students could be required to complete volunteer work as part of the requirements of the program. This would create continuity in the learning process and exposure to community-based projects. Alternatively, it could be achieved through a series of guest speakers from relevant institutions or organisations serving various populations, or talks by members of the community. This could create partnership opportunities with host organisations and contribute to the role of staff in community organisations as co-educators (Leiderman et al. 2002).

Based on our findings, the practicum experience could be enhanced in five ways. (1) Holding structured and regular faculty-field supervisor consultative meetings could help to harmonise everyone's expectations of the practicum experience and the role that field supervisors have in the development of a learning contract. (2) Organising a tripartite orientation program, including students, field supervisors and faculty, to identify the opportunities, challenges and potential solutions to the challenges. This would entail involvement of the stakehold-

ers in the development of orientation materials, which could be made available on the departmental website to reduce the cost of printing and updating material as knowledge evolves or the program curriculum changes. (3) Using standardised documentation to record challenges and report successes that address concerns raised by community partners. (4) Developing long-term reciprocal partnerships between the university and host organisations. This would help to ensure that students gain required practical experience and further develop new skills that could lead to transformational learning and students being adequately prepared to work in a changing social, economic and political landscape. This form of arrangement would allow the host organisations to plan ahead for the arrival of students, and ensure that they receive adequate supervisory direction and support as well as access to the necessary physical and financial resources to follow through on their learning activities. In addition, this would allow community organisations to allocate time for student mentoring as part of the supervisors' workload, while making sure that essential work tasks were completed. (5) Supporting greater interaction between students, faculty and field supervisors in the development of student learning contracts. This would ensure that the student's goals and objectives for their practicum experience correspond with those of the host organisation's program and the designated field supervisor.

We identified several limitations of this study. The study was limited to one academic program of one university in Kenya, and the results may not be applicable to diverse academic programs in other countries. The department was relatively new, established seven years prior to the study in a non-traditional discipline. Results from a more established academic program may yield different results. Also, the responses were limited to the views of one field supervisor per organisation even in cases where the students had more than one point of supervision. The views of field supervisors willing to participate in this study may differ from those of other field supervisors.

The results of this study led to our identifying several topics for future research. It would be useful to conduct a more detailed examination of the role of the field supervisor in facilitating the development of students' professional knowledge and skill. Research that focuses on what field supervisors expect and how to effectively communicate this to students prior to the practicum would also be beneficial. Further exploration of the effectiveness of learning contracts in communicating student learning expectations to their field supervisor would be useful in the further development of community-based practicums, as well as research on the role of student reflections during and after the practicum. This could help to clarify their prior expectations and their learning during the practicum, with regard to professional commitment and the development of professional identity as a new human services professional.

Conclusions

This study increases the knowledge base of CBL in the form of practicums in the Kenyan context. CBL is one way that higher education in Kenya can enhance the employability of graduates from Kenyan uni-

versity programs and respond to and meet emerging labour market needs. Evidence from this study to support the development of best practices responsive to a local context fills a critical gap and encourages key stakeholders in their efforts to move forward with innovative approaches to identified challenges. Based on this study, it is clear that further efforts need to be made to ensure that field supervisors who are staff in community organisations that host students for CBL experiences, such as practicums, have opportunities to be involved in the planning of this type of CBL. This involvement will also help ensure that field supervisors have clear expectations of students' activities as they relate to their program of study and their own role in supervising students. Recommendations to improve relationships and partnerships are crucial to ensuring positive outcomes for both students and host organisations in the future. The results from this study can be used to inform the development of CBL opportunities in other universities and other human service disciplines, which is essential to producing a skilled workforce in Kenya and other developing countries.

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Press as institution of socio-political system of government

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Abstract:

Information policy is an activity of a person to actualize and realize his interests in society by means of creation, modification, preservation and transfer of all types of information. Information policy is a special field of people's activity who is involved in the presentation and dissemination of information (political figures, scientists, analysts, journalists, listeners, readers and etc.) that meets interests of social groups and public institutions. Information policy has two types: state and private. Information policy is informatiology of the mass media. Informatiology of the mass media considers how it shapes ideological, political, economic and other views, thoughts, knowledge and evaluation that influence the welfare, culture, conduct of people and all sides of their life. According to the main principle of the implementation of state information policy the interests of a person and state must be mutually preserved.

Keywords: *information, policy, state information policy, informatiology of the mass media, information society, power.*

As an integral part of the society's political system, the mass media play an important coordination role between the state and society, can freely operate and exert growing influence on social changes. The mass media can operate freely and play a growing role in public changes. Today, the mass media are capable of being the information guarantor of the state stability, a stabilizing factor for society, and by changing any social organism it also determines the importance of the state information policy.

Information is data conveyed to people. People have comprehended information

through data transmission since ancient times. According to R. F. Abdeyev, distinctness of information in any form reflects competition of these attributive and functional concepts, explains its bounds [1, 33]. This means that information used in the society in the form of exchange of information between people has social features.

Being a major component of information society, information policy features two main aspects: the first is that information is considered a significant factor influencing social development, while the second is that infor-

mation represents necessity in managing events and processes.

Politics, first and foremost, comprises several components like the establishment and maintenance of state power [2, 65], and demonstrates itself largely in the activities of social subjects aimed at realizing public interests through power institutions. It covers relations within the government as well as various social groups, classes, nations and states. Its essence is defined by "power" category, while its quality is defined by the essence of the social area that the policy is aimed at. From this aspect, state policy is divided into economic, social, cultural, national and information policy. So policy includes the state, legislative, party and election areas, decision-making mechanisms, political process, political relations, political culture, the media, and etc. It comprises special social institutions executing government authority, political relations, government authority, mass competition for power and control of it [3, 33].

According to E. Tovokin, areas of application of policy are different. But the nature and directions of the activity of social practice are defined by conceptual mechanisms of social groups, which have government authority [4, 40].

Different opinions have been voiced about the government. Of them Montesquieu differs with his socio-political modernization concept and liberal-reformist position. According to the French thinker, government is order, division and equality of power and law. "It has a status of the example of universal civilization" [5, 69].

Information policy is an activity of a person to actualize and realize his interests in society by means of creation, modification, preservation and transfer of all types of information. Information policy is a special field of people's activity who is involved in the presentation and dissemination of information (political figures, scientists, analysts, journalists, listeners, readers and etc.) that

meets interests of social groups and public institutions. Information policy has two types: state and private.

Researchers regard information policy an area of informatology, its socio-political integral part [6, 53].

From this point of view, information policy is informatology of the mass media. Informatology of the mass media considers how it shapes ideological, political, economic and other views, thoughts, knowledge and evaluation that influence the welfare, culture, conduct of people and all sides of their life. According to the main principle of the implementation of state information policy the interests of a person and state must be mutually preserved. This means that state information policy should protect and ensure the government's interests to the extent the government implements and protects the interests of civil society and any separate individual. According to V. D. Popov, the essence of information policy can be defined through information government category as follows: information policy is the ability of political subjects to influence – with the help of information and within the framework of the interests of the government and civil society – consciousness, psychology, conduct and activities of people. Private information policy can serve government, act in contrast to the interests of the civil society, it can build dialogue or disagree with government, or it can serve the interests of separate groups, parties or even individuals.

The object of information policy is the information area of the society's life as a scientific knowledge field in a broad sense of the word. It is the whole set of subjects performing the use, formation and distribution of information, information infrastructure, as well as relevant public relations. Civil society can be represented by the public consciousness as an influence tool of information. V. D. Popov says that the object of information society is information processes reflecting, expressing and protecting mass consciousness,

media and mass communication systems, rights of a person and state policy. [7, 20-22].

As a scientific knowledge (informatiology) area, the subject of information policy is the analysis and forecast of "public information relations", development trends and regularities of information processes and their development, as well as the discovery of the effects of impact of the media and mass communications on the mass consciousness, civil society and government.

The aim of information policy is achieving a system of knowledge for ensuring information and psychological security of citizens and the country, information-analytical accompaniment of state policy, and delivering government's decisions and programs to people as a mass governance subject. Being a scientific area, the task of information policy is "analyzing and forecasting modern information processes, developing theoretical-practical methods of information-analytical activity, ensuring information and psychological security. This way information policy helps to fulfill the task of strategic informatiology, particularly social one – the process of building information society.

Information policy is less analyzed and a more complex type of policy. This is conditioned by a number of factors, including the essence and current state of information area, and the system of the mass media. They consist of the system of institutions for the creation, preservation and transmission of information with the help of technologies. Given the fact that the mass media reflect the interests of government, society, parties, political, financial-economic groups, political interests of separate individuals, they become a more important subject of socio-political activity. When the mass media become the key factor shaping the public opinion this is much more noteworthy especially in the society where reforms are conducted. For this reason the mass media play the role of a political subject of government authority bodies, in other words, the subject of its information policy.

This policy is, in general, a system of principles, technologies and governance bodies ensuring government's interests in the field of information. The essence of information policy consists of information provi-

sion of the interests of government and society. And the protection of these interests is more and more dependent on information component of state policy.

The complexity of the structure of information policy should also be noted. This includes several types: a theoretical and methodological one related to the development of the conceptual basis of this policy, ideology; a social and technological one representing the total outcome of the ways and methods of achieving the goals expressed on the theoretical and methodological level and set based on the analysis of theory and practice; and a practical and organizational one which reflects the execution of the system of measures towards fulfilling major tasks.

Information policy also includes all-federal, regional levels. Both special governance apparatus, including methodology and execution methodics correspond to each of these levels.

There are also several types. This includes an authoritarian one which turns into personal will, a symbiotic one of governance of the information field, a government and public one corresponding to the interests of the society and government thanks to parity structures, etc.

Information policy is carried out in different areas. They consist of independent, but inter-connected structural parts (political, legislative, financial-economic, organizational-technical).

The political part includes direct establishment of the interests of government elite, and it is linked to the preparation and execution of legal acts regulating this area by legislation. The financial-economic part represents politics "solely". In other words, this includes the allocation of budget funds, the conduct of tax and customs policy, the working out of corporatization rules, etc. The last part – the organizational and technical one – covers human resources policy in the field of media, the creation of new structures, transformation of old ones, etc.

In the second half of the 20th century, information industry became one of the most important areas of public production, gradually subordinating all its spheres, especially services sector and leisure industry. The mass

media are becoming a commercialized mass cultural infrastructure aimed at serving the interests of the producers and depersonalization of consumers. And this meets the interest of the supporters of mass culture because moral and ideological results of mass application of standardized informants, which form stereotype manners, norms of conduct and values, automatically bring in financial dividends. Direct relationship of mass culture with information capital, which is strengthening its position in the establishment and enjoys close ties with the international communication market, is becoming the reality of our time. This, certainly, attracts attention.

The achievements of information technologies and mass media systems based on them are so great that the emergence of "information fetishism" is understandable. Representatives of "information fetishism" do not confine to the role of information only to settlement of economic, technological, environmental problems, and apply it to solution of long-standing political, moral and cultural problems. It should be emphasized that not only economic and industrial production, but also political area experiences important influence of information revolution. In addition, politics is increasingly becoming the customer of information technologies.

Rapid development of advanced information and communication technologies both brings about technological innovations, transformation to science-based production, and radically changes people's entire information environment, the whole socio-cultural content of social life, and increases the role of information area. The new information space dictates new realities of the world information market, which has almost become the most rapidly developing sector, eliminating any borders or ideological barriers, and regulating national and cultural differences. New technologies increase the opportunities of delivering any kind of information to any human being in any part of the globe. This also defines the political aspect of information

revolution, which is of particular importance when public structures undergo reforms. The reason is that information is becoming one of the most significant factors in terms of stabilization or destabilization of the society and its political institutions. Moreover, the more tense and dynamic situation in any part of the world is, the more important role the mass media play.

The high level of technologies and global nature of modern information environment, various ways of transmitting information – post, telegraph, telephone, computer and telecommunication technologies prompt the formation of individual communications market (based on network, satellite and stationary communications systems). Now hybrids of telephones, computer, fax and pocket devices are emerging. The intensity of technical progress in this area gives grounds to suggest its unpredictability.

Television, which ignores state borders and national differences of the auditorium as a result of the strengthening of the global influence opportunities of information, experiences the most serious changes. It is more clearly visible in the Internet system. Unlike trade operations, the flow of information is not registered when crossing state borders.

The establishment of a single global information space is an objective requirement of information industry at the modern stage. However, it is not taking place in a balanced manner. The political, economic importance of this process proves that there is discrimination against informationally and technologically less powerful countries. Azerbaijan is an exception. On the night of February 8, 2013 Azerbaijan put its first satellite "Azerspace-1" into orbit. Some 20 percent of the satellite's resources will be used for Azerbaijan's needs, and 80 percent will be available for commercial purposes. It ensures quality television and radio broadcast and high-speed Internet services in the entire territory of Azerbaijan, including Nakhchivan.

Digital computer network replaces previous network of information transmission (telegraph, post, broadcast, cable, etc.). The size of information transmitted through digital computer network cannot be compared to the size of information transmitted by traditional media – television, radio and printed press. Books, newspapers and magazines are available both in printed and online formats.

It should also be noted that the development and integration of information structures has recently started to gain direct support from separate politicians and relevant government institutions. In Japan, for example, the development of cable television network is directly supported by the Ministry of Communications. The government of the United States of America and United Kingdom have considerably reduced anti-monopoly limitations and are now not only preventing, but even assisting the consolidation of local information business (including the integration of printed and electronic media). Even some leaders of developed countries take patronage of important integration projects. For example, let's take a widely known fact: former U.S. Vice-President Albert Gore was

patronizing the information superhighway project of the integration of digital communication systems and the Internet telecommunications network. Taking into account pro-Western development of the local media in the last decade, obviously the same fate awaits the information market of developing countries too. And appropriate bodies are already engaged in forecasting the results of such developments.

These changes bring about the emergence of trends of global change of socio-psychological and even mental comprehension and knowledge mechanisms. This leads to the replacement of the individual analysis through a printed paper with the mass image (television, computer). So a new communicative language based on images, not on symbols (words) is emerging. The results of this transformation can radically change human mentality.

However, these global tendencies experience complete modification in the context of national cultures and change in countries' information space.

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Academic institutions and community-based organizations

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Abstract

Academic institutions and community-based organisations have increasingly recognised the value of working together to meet their different objectives and address common societal needs. In an effort to support the development and maintenance of these partnerships, a diversity of brokering initiatives has emerged. We broadly describe these initiatives as coordinating mechanisms that act as intermediaries with the aim of developing collaborative and sustainable partnerships that provide mutual benefit. A broker can be an individual or an organisation that helps connect and support relationships and shares knowledge. To date, there has been little scholarly discussion or analysis of the various elements of these initiatives that contribute to successful community-campus partnerships. In an effort to better understand where these features may align or diverge, we reviewed a sample of community-campus brokering initiatives across North America, Canada and the United Kingdom to identify their different roles and activities. From this review, we developed a framework to delineate characteristics of different brokering initiatives to better understand their contribution to successful partnerships. The framework is divided into two parts. The first part examines the different structural allegiances of the brokering initiative by identifying the affiliation and principle purpose, and who received the primary benefits. The second part considers the dimensions of brokering activities in respect of their level of engagement, platforms used, scale of activity, and area of focus. The intention of the community-campus engagement brokering framework is to provide an analytical tool

for academics and community-based practitioners engaged in teaching and research partnerships. The categories describing the different structures and dimensions of the brokering initiative will encourage participants to think through the overall goals and objectives of the partnership and adapt the initiative accordingly.

Keywords: brokering initiatives; community-based research; community-campus engagement; partnerships; service learning

Introduction

Academic institutions and community-based organisations have increasingly recognised the value of working together to meet their different objectives and address common societal needs. Building effective research and teaching collaborations between communities (e.g. organisations in the private, public and non-profit sectors) and academics (e.g. postsecondary students, postdoctoral fellows, instructors, professors and their institutions) have resulted in many fruitful outcomes (Buys & Bursnall 2007; Hart, Maddison & Wolff 2007). Schwartz et al. (2016, p. 178) explain that community-campus partnerships can provide 'an avenue to address challenges that face society in new and innovative ways by bringing together knowledge, tools, and skills not previously combined'. Examples exist across a range of sectors and issue areas including community food security (Andrée et al. 2014; Andrée et al. 2016), poverty reduction (Calderón 2007; Schwartz et al. 2016), violence against women (Bell et al. 2004; Jaffe, Berman & MacQuarrie 2011), and community environmental sustainability (Baker 2006; Molnar et al. 2010), to name only a few. While a diversity of approaches exists, in ideal conditions of community-campus engagement (CCE), partners share decision-making and equalise power throughout the research process (Lindamer et al. 2009), co-develop mutually beneficial outputs and outcomes (Levkoe et al. 2016; Naqshbandi et al. 2011), build capacity for under-resourced community-based organisations (Baquet 2012; Sandy & Holland 2006), engage new perspectives to increase knowledge (McNall et al. 2009), and sustain an ability to work together beyond the life of a specific project (Naqshbandi et al. 2011).

Despite the many successes, community-based practitioners involved in CCE have

faced a number of challenges. While community groups typically enter into research relationships being promised mutually beneficial outcomes, studies show that academics and their institutions often benefit far more from these kinds of partnerships (Alcantara et al. 2015; Bortolin 2011; Cronley, Madden & Davis 2015). For community partners, barriers to participating in CCE can include limited time and resources to fully engage (Keyte 2014; Lantz et al. 2001), minimal support for building and maintaining partnerships (Dorow, Stack-Cutler & Varnhagen 2011; Petri 2015; Sandy & Holland 2006), power imbalances (Schwartz et al. 2016), lack of trust (Lantz et al. 2001; Petri 2015) and high levels of staff and volunteer turnover (Keyte 2014; Schwartz et al. 2016; Van Devanter et al. 2011). Despite recognition of these challenges, institutional structures are typically designed to support academics (Cronley, Madden & Davis 2015; Dempsey 2010; Ward & Wolf-Wendel 2000). Studies have also identified significant barriers faced by academics when participating in CCE, including having limited time and resources and being discouraged from community-engaged pedagogies through tenure and promotion structures (Levkoe, Brial & Danier 2014). While most responses tend to occur on a case-by-case basis, some have called for more institutionalised and sustained support mechanisms (Chen 2013; Dorow, Stack-Cutler & Varnhagen, 2011).

CCE brokers have emerged as one response to these challenges. In this article, we broadly describe brokering initiatives as coordinating mechanisms that act as intermediaries between community-based organisations and academic institutions with an aim to develop collaborative and sustainable partnerships. A broker is an individual or organisation that helps connect and support relationships and share knowledge. While

many different forms of brokering initiatives have emerged, there has been little synthesis or analysis on the various features of these initiatives that contribute to successful partnerships. Most brokering initiatives share a common goal of fostering relationships between community and campus partners; yet, they tend to be heterogeneous in their motivations, mandates, organisational structures, target groups, activities, and the sectors they serve. Because brokering initiatives differ on so many dimensions, it is necessary to consider their similarities and differences and assess which elements may be valuable for a particular type of CCE.

In this article, we present a framework for comparative analysis that identifies the different features, roles and activities of CCE brokering initiatives. This framework provides an analytical tool for academics and community-based practitioners to reflect on how the different characteristics of brokering initiatives may contribute to successful CCE partnerships. We begin by summarising the relevant literature, describing key features of CCE brokers, their different functions, and the various factors for success and challenges they face.

Describing and differentiating CCE brokering initiatives

Brokering initiatives aim to support participants at different stages of a partnership and vary depending on their structures, targeted populations and specific activities. Experiences of CCE tend to be context-specific and a CCE broker's role is dependent on the specific project and the needs and assets of each partner. Brokering initiatives must also be flexible and open to change depending on the phase of the relationship. Tennyson (2005) identified three key differences, which provide a basis for understanding how brokering initiatives work within one of the partnering organisations and taking responsibility for preparing and conditioning the different actors, representing the organisation for the duration of the partnership, and

managing various aspects of the collaboration. Internal brokers bring together relevant partners but may also share in decision-making throughout a project. These functions can be compared to those of external brokers who may be contracted by the partners to set up agreements, build capacity, and/or maintain and track ongoing effectiveness. External brokers support partners and equip them with tools to ensure the project is moving forward, but tend to take on little, if any, decision-making responsibility. Second, a broker can be an individual or a team working within or outside one of the partner organisations and tasked with building relationships on behalf of the organisation. Third, proactive brokers initiate and build partnerships, while reactive brokers coordinate partnerships or implement decisions on an organisation's behalf. While some CCE brokers play a key role in developing a partnership, others support a partnership after its initiation. The three differences identified by Tennyson demonstrate that brokers can take on many roles, depending on the particular partners' needs.

Besides recognising the many differences, Tennyson and Baksi (2016) point to a series of common roles and activities among brokers. These include supporting partners throughout the phases in the partnership cycle from scoping and building (e.g. providing outreach and opportunities to engage, managing expectations), managing and maintaining (e.g. facilitating dialogue and governance arrangements, problem-solving), reviewing and revising (e.g. establishing and implementing an ongoing evaluation plan, supporting changes to the partnership) to sustaining outcomes (e.g. knowledge mobilisation, celebrating achievements, managing closure/next steps). Given the variation in the needs of partners and partnership phases, brokers are likely to take on many roles within and across projects, developing a suite of skills to support and benefit partnerships. While some brokering initiatives take on a single role

across community-campus partnerships, such as making an initial connection between two partners, others assume a combination of roles, supporting partners throughout the life of a project.

Specific to community-campus projects, CCE brokers act as an intermediary between community-based organisations and academic institutions. They have been shown to support community and academic partners in designing and implementing a project, establishing initial connections, delivering skills training, problem-solving, supervising students' community-engaged research and learning activities, evaluating a project's impact, and using results to improve future programs while contributing to positive changes in communities (Keating & Sjoquist 2000; Phipps, Johnny & Wedlock 2015; Tennyson 2014). CCE brokers have also promoted learnings and insights, and addressed concerns of power and resource imbalance by ensuring community and campus partners share control equitably (Keating & Sjoquist 2000; Phipps, Johnny & Wedlock 2015). In addition, because community organisations and universities face high levels of personnel turnover, CCE brokers can help by sustaining a project over the long term (Keating & Sjoquist 2000). To avoid leaving community-based organisations with unfinished projects, CCE brokers can help overcome constraints of an academic schedule by continuing to complete tasks after the end of a term.

based brokering initiatives typically aim to encourage the university population to engage in CCE through training, partnership matching, funding and ongoing support. These kinds of models may support initiatives such as science shops, service-learning courses, community-based research projects and community outreach services. Many of them also offer support for community-based organisations working with academics by providing a range of services such as facilitating initial connections and partnership development, and offering templates for partnership agreements, financial and human resources and troubleshooting on an ongoing basis. Academic institutions typically house and fund university-based brokers to meet

institutional needs. While community partners play an important role in projects working with academic faculty or students, a key purpose of these brokering initiatives is to ensure academics have opportunities to conduct research and learn within community organisations.

The Community Engaged Scholarship Institute (www.cesinstitute.ca/) is one example of a university-based brokering initiative. It is located in Guelph, Canada, and acts as a hub for engaged scholarship within the University of Guelph and the broader community. Staff members work with faculty members and students, community-based organisations and government, building capacity for participation in community engagement and social innovation projects. The Institute leverages resources, builds and maintains partnerships, and addresses obstacles to participating in community-engaged research. Another example is University-Community Partnerships (<http://ucp.msu.edu/>). Located in East Lansing, US, it provides a range of services for developing research networks among campus partners at Michigan State University and community partners. Staff match university partners interested in working with a community group or partner on a grant proposal or maintaining a long-term campus partnership with a community group. University-Community Partnerships balances university and community needs and priorities, promoting projects that provide mutual benefits for all partners, build capacity in communities and encourage long-term partnerships within research networks.

As a hybrid of the previous two categories, community-university-based brokering initiatives are often managed by a team of academic staff, students and/or faculty, as well as community-based organisational representatives. Initiatives in this category are typically driven by both community and academic partners, although it is common to see explicit reference towards prioritising community objectives and goals. These types of brokering initiatives typically operate using a mix of resources from postsecondary institutions and external grant funding.

An example of a community-university-based brokering initiative is the Helpdesk of

the Community University Partnership Programme (www.brighton.ac.uk/business-services/community-partnerships/index.aspx), housed at the University of Brighton in the UK. The Helpdesk's work is community-driven and collaborative, with an emphasis on ensuring that community and academic partners are able to build equitable relationships and gain mutual benefit (Rodriguez & Millican 2007). It acts as a gateway to the university for both representatives from community-based organisations enquiring about funding for starting up a research project and faculty members who might have relevant research interest in collaborating on a project; and as a contact point for university staff and students interested in making contact with community-based organisations for collaborative research and teaching purposes. Initiated through philanthropic seed funding, the Helpdesk currently receives the majority of its funding through its university host. Another example is the Trent Community Research Centre (www.trentcentre.ca/) located in Peterborough, Canada. The Centre is community-based, with project proposals prioritising community needs coming from community-based organisations. Brokers match Trent University students seeking to engage in community-based projects as volunteers or to fulfil part of their course work with community partners to conduct community-based research projects. They ensure that community partners' priorities drive the project, as well as supporting the university students throughout the project.

Resource-based brokering initiatives include grant programs that provide resources to community-based organisations and academic researchers and/or institutions that aim to address key challenges through research and action. While some resource-based brokering initiatives simply provide monetary resources, others prefer to play a more active role in the partnership by taking on management responsibilities and/or offer-

ing extended support services such as training and knowledge mobilisation services. For example, the Social Science and Humanities Research Council of Canada (http://www.sshrc-crsh.gc.ca/about-au_sujet/partnerships-partenariats/index-eng.aspx) offers a series of grant programs to support partnerships between academics at different universities, as well as between businesses and non-profit organisations. Funds are granted to carry out research, training and knowledge mobilisation activities using approaches that involve partners collaborating and sharing leadership. Funds can be used to establish new partnerships, test partnership approaches and expand established partnerships. As a second example, the National Coordinating Centre for Public Engagement (www.publicengagement.ac.uk/), located in Bristol, UK, supports universities throughout the UK to increase how often and how well they engage in community-based research and learning activities. It works with campus staff members and students to develop skills for community-engagement activities and offers training sessions (e.g. funding, impact, evaluation) and consultancy to researchers, research managers and staff members in community-based organisations.

Finally, brokering networks, the broadest of the brokering initiative categories, describe initiatives that tend to operate independently to foster relationships through a series of mechanisms. With brokering networks taking on a range of formal and informal structures, they often require little commitment from members and minimal resources to sustain. Networks can also work across geographies to provide a channel for sharing information, resources and ideas (Ontario Health Communities Coalition n.d.). Brokering networks offer opportunities to develop partnerships, collaborate on projects and share information in a more indirect way than the other four structures.

The Community-Campus Partnerships for Health (www.ccphealth.org/) is a membership-based CCE network that provides numerous opportunities to promote and connect communities and academic institutions around health equity and social justice (Community-Campus Partnerships for Health 2017). Through their website, multiple listservs and biennial conference, the network mobilises knowledge, provides training and technical assistance, conducts research, builds coalitions and advocates for supportive policies. As a brokering network, it unites community practitioners and academics from diverse fields around community-based participatory research principles and practices. On the other hand, the Canadian Rural Research Network (<http://rural-research-network.blogspot.ca/>) acts as a hub for rural stakeholders across Canada, including academics, practitioners, formal and informal community groups, and government officials, to share research outputs. Members can stay up-to-date on rural research, connect with various rural stakeholders, and develop and maintain research partnerships. The Network has no budget, but is sustained by its members who serve on various committees.

Part 2: Dimensions

The second part of the framework involves four categories that speak to the kinds of activities undertaken by brokering initiatives. These categories address details of what CCE brokers do and how they develop programs, governance and infrastructure accordingly. Below we present a description of each of the four categories as well as examples of some of the different kinds of brokering initiatives.

First, level of engagement covers the frequency of support and duration of involvement that brokers have with stakeholders throughout a CCE project. The level of engagement of the different brokering initiatives can be conceived of as a continuum that meets the needs of CCE partnerships in a variety of ways. At one end are brokering initiatives that provide 'light-touch' engagement, which often involves CCE brokers having initial contact with partners, being less involved after the partnership has been established, and allowing the partners to take on leader-

ship. For example, some brokering initiatives we reviewed supported community-engaged learning projects by pairing students with community-based organisations to fulfil coursework requirements, identifying faculty members to work with a particular community partner, and offering training sessions, one-time learning events, or meeting spaces to be used on an as needed basis. At the other end are brokering initiatives that offer a deep level of engagement. This involves establishing partnerships and playing an active role throughout the duration of the project by working with partners to manage and conduct community-driven research. The Trent Community Research Centre, for example, maintains contact with partners throughout the course of a project and sometimes beyond. These CCE brokers also engage in project-planning and decision-making, helping to secure project funding, and in the case of community-based research activities, playing a direct role in the research (e.g. data collection, analysis and interpretation, and knowledge mobilisation).

Second, brokering initiatives differed in respect of the types of platforms they used to manage services. Some brokering initiatives maintained a physical centre within an academic institution or an office in the community. Having a physical presence within a community or on campus allowed these types of brokering initiatives to host face-to-face meetings with community and university partners or make workspaces available for planning, data collection or informal discussions. Learning events, such as workshop series, presentation panels and informal meet-and-greets could also be used to bring community and academic partners together for face-to-face interaction. Other brokering initiatives, such as the Canadian Rural Research Network, used virtual platforms that offered community and academic partners the opportunity to connect through online communication tools, such as discussion forums, listservs, researcher wanted boards, expertise or member profile searches, volunteer or partner matching databases, and virtual platforms for group collaboration. Some brokering initiatives offered a combination of physi-

cal and virtual platforms as multiple ways to connect diverse partners.

Third, brokering initiatives differed in their scale of activities. Some brokering initiatives were primarily focused on supporting partnerships in their local community or region. Examples include brokering partnerships between community groups and students to establish a food rescue program in a city, establishing connections with local housing providers and professors to develop innovative opportunities in a low-income neighbourhood, and working with local libraries to match university students with children in need of reading mentors. Other brokering initiatives reached a national audience. For example, establishing partnerships between rural researchers and practitioners across Canada, connecting diverse stakeholders to explore national poverty solutions, and bringing together community-based organisations and academics in the UK over issues of food security. Other brokering initiatives spanned a much wider geography, working with partners on an international scale. Examples include promoting an exchange of ideas and knowledge-sharing at international health and social justice conferences on community-based participatory research, implementing an international in-person community-campus partnerships course and follow-up mentoring, and promoting online global dialogue and resource-sharing for students and community activists interested in social action and research.

Lastly, the areas of focus varied among the different brokering initiatives. Some initiatives engaged in particular issue-based activities and services. For example, a brokering initiative focusing on community food security hosted webinars and workshops, posted articles on their website and sent out newsletters to members. Other issue-based efforts covered poverty reduction, rural research, HIV/AIDS, and housing. In general, these activities tended to be more issue-based than those in the other brokering initiative categories.

Some brokering initiatives had a much broader focus, however, with CCE brokers engaging in projects using community-engaged approaches to teaching and research, focusing on a broad range of issues and areas, such as community resilience and health promotion.

Upon examination of the four categories, level of broker engagement and types of broker platforms, appeared to be the most informative for developing a brokering initiatives matrix. Areas of focus tended to vary among the brokering initiatives and few patterns could be identified from that dimension. And while we noticed that brokering initiatives using virtual platforms tended to reach more national and international audiences, whereas physical platforms lent themselves to a local scale of activity, descriptions of activities within the level of broker engagement and type of broker platforms seemed most informative for guiding brokering initiatives. Figure 1 provides a summary of these two brokering initiative dimensions.

Figure 1 Broker initiative dimensions matrix

Brokering initiatives in the virtual-light touch quadrant offer opportunities to share knowledge and establish connections with a wide span of members or partners. The Canadian Rural Research Network (<http://rural-research-network.blogspot.ca/>) is one example of this type of approach. Some drawbacks to this approach include members engaging in passive interactions (e.g. scanning a blogpost), but not reaching out to members, and offering limited member contact by not promoting regular member or partner contact. Brokering initiatives in the virtual-deep engagement quadrant offer members more engaging opportunities to connect by promoting ongoing project sharing, regular meetings and frequent news updates. While this approach has great potential in deeply connecting diverse stakeholders, we did not come across this kind of brokering initiative in our search. Drawbacks to this ap-

proach could be the increased resources required within the brokering initiative to moderate discussions, host meetings, and provide regular coaching and member interaction. Brokering initiatives in the physical-light touch quadrant offer services to connect people within communities while requiring fewer resources to sustain a deep engagement initiative. The Helpdesk is an example of a brokering initiative that uses this approach. A drawback could be that partners might not be able to sustain engagement without a broker's ongoing support. Finally, the physical-deep engagement brokering initiative offers partners opportunities to deeply engage with one another throughout the life of a project. The Centre for Community-Based Research is an example of this type of brokering initiative. Drawbacks include the resources, such as time, space and funds, necessary to support partners at each phase of a project.

Conclusions

In this article, we have presented an overview of the features, roles and activities of brokering initiatives and a framework to better understand their contributions to successful community-campus partnerships. Our intention has been to provide an analytical tool that can support academics and community-based practitioners engaged in teaching and research partnerships. There are a number of ways this framework might be used in developing new or existing brokering initiatives. First, the categories in each of the two parts of the framework describing the different structural allegiances (i.e. community-based brokering initiatives, university-based brokering initiatives, community-university-based brokering initiatives, resource-based brokering initiatives and brokering networks) and dimensions (i.e. levels of engagement, types of platforms, scales of activities and areas of focus) could encourage partners to think through their overall goals and objectives. The framework could also help participants to better evaluate the purpose of a brokering initiative and the various mechanisms to be used to meet those objectives. Further, it might enable consideration of the strengths and limitations of various brokering initiatives in order to understand what each might

accomplish, its limitations, and how it could adapt accordingly.

For example, a CCE broker interested in disseminating knowledge, keeping participants up-to-date on activities and providing a place for input and sharing ideas might adopt a virtual light-touch engagement model. This type of model would require few resources to maintain (e.g. staff members, infrastructure, costs). A brokering initiative interested in regularly engaging a wide reach of partners or members, but at a low cost, might wish to use a virtual deep-engagement model. This could keep overheads low as only a few key staff members would be required to maintain online communication tools and activities (e.g. website, discussion moderation, web coaching, webinars). By contrast, a brokering initiative seeking to have a wide community impact by reaching many diverse partners might decide to use a physical light-touch model. By offering matching services, but not requiring resources to provide ongoing support to partnerships throughout a project, this type of initiative would require minimal staff members to review proposals and match partners. The most resource-intensive choice is the physical deep-engagement model. A brokering initiative with the goal of establishing and maintaining CCE partnerships and supporting partners long-term would need to ensure they had adequate, ongoing funding available to sustain such a model. As more CCE projects turn to brokering initiatives as a way to support their work, it is important that all partners have a clear sense of the initiative's purpose and what is involved.

The framework could also be used to consider where and how to situate a brokering initiative. For example, a brokering initiative based in the community would be more accessible for community-based organisations and more understanding and responsive to their needs than if based in a university. This would be especially true if there was concern that a particular institutional structure might not address the needs of community participants in a meaningful way. However, university-based brokers might have more success securing funding and other resources to support their work. Universities could also facilitate broader based partner-

ship networks, while many non-profit organisations would have limited capacity to build and maintain relationships beyond those related to their immediate work. With university funding, however, comes additional expectations (e.g. prioritising faculty and students, adhering to a university's strategic plan). As another example, as brokering initiatives in a physical location are typically housed in community-based centres or university-based offices, they are well positioned to respond to their immediate community, an important element in building trust. Network brokers, on the other hand, tend to use virtual platforms, which limit face-to-face contact but allow them to reach a much wider constituency.

Brokering initiatives could also use this framework when mapping out the resources needed to sustain their work. Common to most brokering initiatives we examined was the importance of having a steady source of funding to develop infrastructure, hire staff to carry out the necessary tasks and sustain the initiative over the long-term. CCE brokers that are funded or based in a university tended to have the most stability and capacity as a result of solid institutional backing. In fact, some of the brokering initiatives we studied began as independent organisations based in the community, but over time chose to relocate to the university due to funding opportunities and the institutional resources and supports available. Having stable funding appeared to lessen the anxiety of participants and allow CCE brokers to focus on improving the content of their activities and services. In a number of cases, added stability also enabled participants to more seriously consider and address power imbalances within their relationships. Some of the networks we examined, such as the Canadian Rural Research Network, did not have funding and, as a result, operated primarily as a shell, with activities driven completely by participants (typically those with grants to do their work). The source of funding also made a significant dif-

ference to the work CCE brokers could take on. For example, one brokering initiative reported that having support from an external funder over the course of several years allowed them to respond better to community needs, take risks and experiment with new types of activities rather than worrying about whether they were addressing the university's strategic plan. For many academics, a well-funded, secure and long-term partnership provided added legitimacy for engaging in, and in some cases leading, CCE projects.

We propose several directions for future research on CCE brokering initiatives. First, there is very little research documenting and evaluating case studies of brokering initiatives, especially in peer-reviewed journals. These kinds of scholarly studies are important as a means of sharing information and comparing and contrasting the efforts of different initiatives. The framework is a first step towards that in-depth analysis and could be used to further examine the process of building and maintaining CCE brokering relationships and models. Second, limited research exists on both the factors for success and the challenges faced by CCE brokering initiatives. To share learnings, we suggest that researchers analyse experiences and document lessons learned from attempts at brokering community-campus partnerships in relation to the categories proposed in this article. Finally, CCE practitioners would benefit from studies of the different tools available to support brokering initiatives. We propose that these tools could be conceptualised in relation to the framework.

While this framework provides a valuable tool for understanding and evaluating brokering initiatives, it is not intended to be static. In most cases, we found that the categories were not fixed and that many of the brokering initiatives we examined took on more than one of the structural allegiances and/or dimensions simultaneously. This speaks to the context in which many of these brokering initiatives operate (e.g. react-

ing/responding to changing funding realities, program priorities of community organisations, emerging/unanticipated needs, etc.). Also, as technology changes along with the needs of CCE, new tools are being developed that may require different kinds of frameworks to understand and interpret CCE activities. Thus, while we compared brokering initiatives in order to understand their different attributes, we are not advocating a standardised approach to evaluation. Our research and experience leads us to suggest that brokering initiatives must be context-specific and respond to the needs of both community and academic partners. However, we need mech-

anisms to support community-campus partnerships in a more institutional and sustained way. It is our hope that the analytical framework will make a meaningful contribution to this endeavour.

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Legislation of state information policy the formation of bases and development

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Abstract

Analysis of some of the provisions of the Law on Information, Information and Information Protection shows that this law regulates more informal relationships. The Anti-Terror Law does not specifically stipulate information terrorism. However, information terrorism can inflict severe blows on the interests of the individual, society and the state, and sometimes to overcome the serious consequences (such as the state's economic system as a result of cyber attacks, state information resources, etc.) is more difficult and problematic than eliminating becomes. This type of terrorism should also be specified in the law, and its definition, the ways of characterizing it, and in general the legal aspects of the relations arising in this area. The process of formation and development of the legislative basis of the state information policy is a dialectical process that progresses parallel with the overall development of the political system and society as a whole.

Keywords: *state information policy, information right, opinion, freedom of speech and press, information space, information security, information society.*

Introduction

Azerbaijan has undertaken complex measures to ensure mass media, freedom of speech, information, freedom of speech, and individuality in the past 25 years, as a way of building a democratic, legal, secular state. These events are continuing in the present day too, and information - international experience is deeply studied to form an open society, and national legislation is adequately upgraded to the demands of the new era. The state, as the

main provider of information freedom, determines the legal regime of information, the rules of access to information, the rules of access to information and the rules for the freedom of information as a whole with the help of legal regulation. At the same time, it imposes legal remedies to prevent the exercise of this freedom.

After the restoration of the state independence of Azerbaijan endeavours Civil society and a legal state and the most important attribute of a new stage in the

development of the mass media was founded. The fact that our country holds one of the leading places in the CIS for the dynamics of freedom of speech and press in the last 25 years is conditioned by these realities.

The development history of the Azerbaijani press has passed a long and complicated way. Generally speaking, although the history of the press as its public institution is not as old as history, it is gratifying that the history of the Azerbaijani press is one of the first in Central Asia and Eastern Europe.

On July 22, 1875, the first press body - the newspaper "Ekinchi" began functioning under the founding of Hasan bey Zardabi. Referring to the role played by the "Akinci" newspaper in the formation of Azerbaijan's information policy, national leader of the Azerbaijani people Heydar Aliyev said: "The main principles declared by the national democratic press" Ekinchi "newspaper - enlightenment, modernization, purity of the ideology, propagation of national goals, organic identity of human values with national traditions, bringing literary language closer to the spoken language, objective coverage of events has become the cornerstone of the future development of Azerbaijani national-democratic press" [1].

The founder of the history of the press, "Farmer" newspaper c uncle in 1877 after the publication of the newspaper, in its issue of 56 Stop the activity at the property.

Late 19th century - The beginning of the twentieth century can be characterized as a period of media pressing in the history of Azerbaijan. In the period underreview, Ziya (1879), Kashkul (1880), Kaspi (1880-90), East-rs (1903), "Life" (1905), " (1915), "Azerbaijan" (1918) and "Molla Nasreddin" magazine in 1906.

The national democratic press of 1918-1920 played a major role in the victory of the Democratic Republic of Azerbaijan and its

propaganda. The vast majority of those who achieved the foundation of the first democratic state in the East and in the Turkish world were prominent, talented journalists, publicists and political figures.

The AXC periodical is a result of higher development in the history of Azerbaijan's national journalism compared to previous and previous periods was able to reach the stage. In the years 1918-1920, the government of the Democratic Republic, which was one of the most honorable stages of our national liberation history, had done a great deal of work to create a legal framework for the development of our national journalism. For the first time in this period, the state-run information policy of national-democratic character has been implemented.

In May of 1918, creating a democratic republic of Azerbaijan, soon, on 30 October 1919, "the press charter receives the URL. While adopting the "Press Charter" reflecting the freedom of thought, freedom of the press, and other rights and freedoms in this area, it has been relied on the democratic principles of media freedom in progressive world-wide normative-legal acts at that time.

On October 30, 1919, the "Press Charter" adopted by the Parliament of the Democratic Republic of Azerbaijan gave a serious impetus to the development. The charter provides for the cancellation of senzuran the media showed that of the establishment of the legal ways. "Press Charter" in accordance with the first paragraph, with the publication of works by the government printing press allowed to sell the business, and no one qualified to e charged and the government declared istənilməyəcəyi [2].

"Press Charter" in accordance with the relevant rules, the profile of the Prophet for the first time in the Democratic Republic of Azerbaijan signed an order on 9 November 1918, the national government censorship of

the press was with the abolition of censorship in the country to open the way to the press release. "The press is about the charter" for many years under the oppression of tsarist empire squeezed allow people to express their opinions freely. The adopted charter was the first legislative act regulating the activities of mass media in the country. Thus, the development of free and professional journalism in Azerbaijan has led to this.

Analyzing the "Press Charter" AAValiyev shows that the Azerbaijan Democratic Republic has taken serious steps to create a legal framework for the development of the press and journalism. Parliament on October 30, 1919, "the press about the statute" was adopted on the legal basis of the established media. This is the first legislative act regulating the activities of a variety of press and print business in the country. The Charter consists of two parts. There are 20 points in the first part, and three in the second. The first paragraph of the Charter declares freedom of the press, saying "no government will be required by the government". In the second paragraph, "not being accountable for a trial" was brought to the attention. In the third paragraph, the Chief Inspector of Press Affairs under the General Government Office was entrusted with administrative and general supervision. In this legislative act, which deems the freedom of speech and press in Azerbaijan as the main priority of the state, and legally justifies pluralism, "the difference between free press and anarchy press" was defined as "as is the case" by Rasulzade.

At the parliament meeting on October 23, 1919, the bill was submitted for discussion by the editor of "Azerbaijan" Shafibay Rustambeyli. MPs of the "Socialist Party" and "Hummat", who were opposed to the authorities around the project, spoke. Shafibey Rustambeyli, Samad Agamalioglu, Ibrahim Abilov, Nasib bey Yusifbeyli, Aliheydar Garayev, Ahmed Pepinov, MASazulzade and others voiced opinions and proposals on the project at the meeting chaired by Hasan bey Aghayev. In the tense

debate, the Socialists left the hall with a serious objection to the third paragraph of the bill. One of the most notable moments in the discussions is that Mr. Rustambeyli speaks of the European experience of the press regulation of the press. Rustambeyli said that, according to the history of public-political movement in Europe, freedom can not be at an unlimited level. If press and freedom of speech are accepted without limit, people will use it as it wishes. It can aggravate the political situation in the country, increase external threats, strengthen ideological pressure, and eventually damage the newly established state. He showed that, as in all areas, the press should be subject to the law. After intense discussions, the law was passed. The law for the first time "the Government of the Republic of Azerbaijan Akhbaris" in the November 27 and 27 issues were published in December 1919 [3, 131-132].

The newly adopted charter has allowed the country's information space to be protected from alien influences and the establishment of a normal media system. The Charter, which meets the legal requirements of the leading European countries, has also paved the way for progressive journalistic traditions in Azerbaijan and has deprived it of privacy, instability and non-professionalism.

As you can see, the Azerbaijani government and the parliament are in line with the press and publishing requirements of the time a number of decisions have been made to establish. For example, in parliament's judgment of October 30, 1919, it was reported that the release, printing and sale of press, lithography and similar businesses were free. It is no coincidence that freedom of speech, press and conscience had reached a high level in Azerbaijan at that time. First Republic, Ukraine's ambassador to Turkey, then Joseph Chamanzaminli "The writer ought to do?" Question answering modern period "language of freedom, freedom of the pen" had the answer [4].

If there were only 40 newspapers in the period from the creation of "Ekinchi" newspaper until May 1918, the number of newspapers in the period of the 23-month

rule of the Popular Front was about 200. The reasons for this extraordinary growth statistikasındaki periodicals, first of all the existing democratic system of counter-tolerant approach to opposing ideas, debates and so on dis iyalara kus was associated with the challenge. One of the main facts here is that most of the leaders of the Democratic People's Republic of Azerbaijan are journalists. Democratically-oriented media are sensitive to the issues that concern people, touches on issues that are waiting for their solution, promotes ideas of freedom, independence, Turkism, and conducts some kind of political enlightenment [3 , 117].

The activity of the Press Charter, which is distinguished by its democratic content, has been short and short, since after its entry into the Soviet Empire, this important document has also lost its legal force.

Although the Soviet era has ideological seal to the press, it has played an important milestone in the development of the establishment and the regulatory framework of this important institution of the political system.

Legal-political reform of 1978 led to a qualitatively new stage in the development of national press. The Constitution of the Azerbaijan SSR adopted in that yearIt was approved by Heydar Aliyev as the state language of the Azerbaijani language. Just as the Azerbaijani language as a state language has become a major event in the history of the Azerbaijani press and in general the development of the Azerbaijani language. Therefore, the creation of such a legal, political, constitutional basis for the development of the language has opened new horizons for the development of the Azerbaijani press [5].

After the restoration of its independence in the late 20th century, Azerbaijan rebuilt the processes that remained intact in the Democratic Republic of Azerbaijan, as well as in many areas of public life, complex reforms were carried out in the field of information,

ensuring freedom of thought, speech, press and mass media important work has been done.

The adoption of the Law of the Republic of Azerbaijan "On mass media" in 1992 created conditions for the creation of new media. In 1990, the publication an "SES", "Justice", "clarity", "Mirror", "Iki Sahil" Newspapers line ones - "525", "7 days", "Yeni Azerbaijan" newspapers joined.

1992 From March 15 to the television and April 2 , 1993, From the press censorship was imposed.

Today the existence of the independent Azerbaijan state, its democratic traditions and institutions, and the successful continuation of these traditions are directlyrelated to the name of Heydar Aliyev, who created their solid foundation . The existence of human rights, political pluralism and civil society in Azerbaijan finds its confirmation both in the independent activity of the mass media forming as a democratic institution and in the legal framework and guarantees for their development. These decrees and decrees have played an exceptional role in the formation and development of independent media in Azerbaijan.

In June 1993, in the aftermath of the Azerbaijan a completely new stage in the development of the media has begun. That's it Free activity of press agencies in the republic and period elimination of artificial obstacles to development, legislation to improve the bases, material and technical supply of newspapers Implementation of consistent measures in the field of improvement started. V society Azerbaijan as a model of its own development 1 993 since the human rights of speech and of the press a number of international conventions on freedom of expression, acceded to treaties [6 , 125].

The first Constitution of the independent Republic of Azerbaijan, adopted

on November 12, 1995, provides freedom of speech, opinion and information, the right of everyone to receive and disseminate information, and the inadmissibility of censorship on the mass media.

In modern times, an important milestone in the development of free press and independent media in Azerbaijan begins with the abolition of censorship on the media in 1998. That year the work carried out in accordance with the Decree "On additional measures to ensure freedom of speech, opinion and information in the Republic of Azerbaijan", signed by the Head of State, created fundamental conditions for increasing the effectiveness of the mass media activity mechanism. Decree of the Head of the Department for the Protection of State Secrets in the Press and Other Mass Media under the Cabinet of Ministers was abolished, the Decree of 16 April 1992 on the establishment of military censorship and the 15 April 1993 decree on the application of control over all information dissemination was considered lost.

Abolition of censorship in a democratic society for the future is going through a pluralistic information policy and accelerated the process conditioned. Other measures envisaged by the Decree provide for the development of independent media, the freedom of speech, information and opinion provided by international law and the Constitution of Azerbaijan, and enriched the country's information policy [7].

In 1998, Azerbaijan was the first republic in the CIS to receive state control over the media. A year later, in 1999, the Law on Mass Media was adopted. The adoption of this law was one of the important steps in qualitative enrichment and improvement of the normative legal framework regulating relations in this field. It was a progressive law that regulates the development of the media, regulates the state, society and media relations and enriches the relevant legal framework. This document also contributed to the elimination of bureaucratic obstacles that hindered media development. State registration was abolished, and the procedure for the establishment of press releases was somewhat simplified. To do so,

it was enough to submit a petition to the Ministry of Justice.

2000 year March month By the order of Heydar Aliyev, "Mass in 2000-2001 information tools material-technical Conditions improved - all to the "Program of measures approved has been done.

At present, modernization processes in all areas have accelerated. At present the state and society of Azerbaijan live in a qualitatively new stage of development, modernize all spheres of social life, apply information and communication technologies meeting the world standards, people's well-being rises [8]. As a result of modernization, transformation and renewal of all institutions of the society, including the media, takes place. At the same time, modernized media also influence the state's modernization policy. The mass media has a tendency toward the formation of a liberal democratic values, publicity, freedom of thought and expression, political, ideological, cultural pluralism, tolerance, dialogue, compromise, consensus culture, public opinion, critical attitude towards reality, political culture, national idea and ideology, and influences the formation of traditions, defending the national-state interests, becomes one of the major factors in the state's socio-political, social modernization policy [9].

As it is known, in 2001, when the Republic of Azerbaijan entered the Council of Europe, it undertook several commitments. One of them is related to media reform. These reforms mainly reflect the improvement of media legislation in line with existing democratic standards in this area. The content of legal acts, adopted in 2001 in the area of freedom of the press and information that reflects the key aspects and aspect of the state's information policy, confirms the successful implementation of these reforms (in fact, the initial emblems of these reforms were incorporated in the 1995 Constitution and 1998 and subsequently found in acts of information legislation (for example, the prohibition of censorship, etc.).

On December 27, 2001, the head of the state signed an Order "On Additional

Measures to Raise Public Awareness for the Mass Media". It was stated in the decree that the freedom of speech and the press in Azerbaijan, the development of free thought and political pluralism, and the unobstructed intervention in all spheres of public life have created some specific problems among the public officials and civil servants in the country through mass media. On the one hand, the freedom of information society and media rights, personal rights and freedoms gozlənilməməsində balance speaks for itself. On the other hand, the principles of freedom of information and tolerance are not properly utilized due to the low level of professionalism and professionalism of some journalists.

Moreover, the difference between the abundance of press and the society's real need, and the competition created in the conditions of free market relations, have also fueled many media outlets with financial problems. The order to overcome these problems, as well as logistical and financial base of mass media and the strengthening of the House of speech, freedom of information and insight in order to create more opportunities for a Several events, including a license for private television and radio stations and radio frequencies with the legislation to improve the provision of independent TV and radio broadcasting companies in the expansion and improvement of the technical state of broadcasting measures, the spread of foreign channels in Azerbaijan in accordance with law and regulation. was intended .

On March 15, 2003, at the I Congress of Azerbaijani journalists, the Azerbaijani Press Council was set up to regulate relations existing between the media and the public and the government. Establishment of the Press Council had a positive impact on the elimination of poverty in this area. Creating Journalists' Professional Code has played an important role in solving problems among media organizations.

On June 20, 2005, the President of the Republic of Azerbaijan signed an Order on holding the 130th jubilee of the National Press of Azerbaijan. The decree states: "Today, continuing the policies and traditions of Heydar Aliyev in the state-press relations, the Azerbaijani government has taken steps to create normal conditions for the media, to ensure its influence on society's life, to play a role in the processes of democratization, and to fully realize the right of citizens and journalists to receive information. sees it. In the globalization and information age, there is a need to ensure that all state bodies operate in the same way as professionalism, and that effective transparency is also in place in order to activate their public relations.

Under present conditions, the state has the task of establishing normal, business relationships with the media, respecting journalists' right to information, and co-operating with the media. In addition, it is declared that the state is interested in strengthening the independence of the press, its financial base, financial support, journalists' professionalism and journalistic influence, and concrete measures are taken to do so. The role of the Press Council as a public self-regulatory body should be increased in the absence of a state body regulating relations in the field of press and information. The Press Council should play an increasingly active role in the civil-affairs regulation of the state-press, civil-media relations, journalistic ethics, protection of journalists' rights, and the enhancement of access to information. More pressing and all media outlets are more focused on objectivity, professionalism, impartiality, high national consciousness and patriotism, [1, 0].

On July 21, 2005, President Ilham Aliyev signed decrees on Awarding the Press Officers of Azerbaijan, Order of Honorary Titles to the Press Workers of Azerbaijan, as well as Financial Aid to the Media. In 2005,

the Milli press, the establishment of the 130th anniversary of the Azerbaijani President Heydar Aliyev's policy is successfully continued, "Honored Journalist" the name of the restoration of the country's leading media representatives of the higher awards, as well as the "Progress" Medal of editorial offices once and for all provided financial assistance.

The concept of state support for the press The signing is between the public institution and the media Cooperation in the development of highly efficient, mass economic independence of the media as well as Increase the professionalism of media representatives, their citizens for the purpose of strengthening the role of society in building gave birth. President Ilham Aliyev's Decree on Establishment of the State Support Fund for the Development of Mass Media under the President of the Republic of Azerbaijan on April 3, 2009, states that state support for the development of mass media in the country This is of great importance for the practical implementation of the issues reflected in the Concept [6 , 152].

In 2008, the adoption of the Concept of State Support for Mass Media in power, the development of independent media, strengthening of the national state as a necessary support to confirm trend. This Concept reflects the principal provisions and important principles that will ensure the development of the media, which will serve the interests of the Azerbaijani state and people. At present, the budget allocated to the MEDT is one of the main factors contributing to the reduction of negative trends in the media, along with improving material security of the Azerbaijani press. Most of the terms and conditions contained in the concept of the relevant bodies inevitably healthy, constructive, creative and responsible operation is pushed, and that everyone, everyone, the state and society as a whole desirable, worthy heed [11].

Matbuat workers, housing conditions and their houses for the construction of the President, 2010 July 22, "the press workers to strengthen social protection

measures on the" Order 2010 provided in the budget of the Presidential Reserve Fund of Azerbaijan 5 million manat was allocated to the State Support Fund for Mass Media Development under the President of the Republic of Azerbaijan, a separate building for 156 apartments was built for journalists.

Cabinet of Ministers of the Republic of Azerbaijan Dated May 17, 2010, No. 89 "on the rules for registration of state information

resources" Regulation Approved. In accordance with that statute, the state information resources register is formed for the following purposes in the Republic of Azerbaijan: recording and monitoring of state information resources; coordination of design, creation and use of information systems with state information resources, their assurance and protection means; operational, accurate and up-to-date information exchange mechanisms, including the creation of a national information space, including existing and newly created information resources; Support for the organization of registrations and information exchange between register and local registries of information resources; unification of classifications and software-technical solutions in the field of information; Providing transparency to prevent discrimination and repetition in the creation of information resources; evaluation of the effectiveness of the creation and utilization of state information resources; supporting the implementation of state programs and e-services projects on transition to information society; Assisting individuals and legal entities in the protection of intellectual property rights established by law; creation of conditions for exchange of experience among the subjects creating and using information resources, stimulating the application of advanced technologies; provision of state bodies with information on information resources of legal entities and individuals in accordance with the legislation, determination of statistical indicators and organization of relevant reporting; ensuring the rights of

citizens to access information and protect personal data [1 2].

In accordance with the Decree of the President of the Republic of Azerbaijan dated May 23, 2011 "On some measures in the field of electronic services rendered by public authorities", state bodies have organized electronic services in all fields in accordance with their activities. A single e-government portal "www.e-gov.az" has been created to ensure the organization of e-services on the principle of "one-stop shop".

Decree of the President of the Republic of Azerbaijan dated 26 September 2012 "On Measures to Improve Information Security Activity" is among the most important legal acts regulating relations on information security. In accordance with the Decree coordination of the activities of state and non-state information infrastructure subjects, their users, assessment and management of risk in cybersecurity, the preparation and implementation of national training and retraining programs for the protection, stability and continuity of information processes in the country, protection of information resources of state bodies, prevention, the State Agency for Special Communication and Information Security of the Special State Protection Service of the Republic of Azerbaijan was established on the basis of the Department of Special Communication and Information Security of the Special State Protection Service of the Republic of Azerbaijan in order to provide enlightenment [1 3].

Dövlət orqanlarının fəaliyyətində şəffaflığın artırılması, hesabatlılığın təmin edilməsi, qərarların qəbulu və idarəçilikdə ictimaiyyətin iştirakının genişləndirilməsi, yeni informasiya texnologiyalarının tətbiqi üçün Azərbaycan Prezidentinin 2012-ci il 5 sentyabr tarixli Sərəncamı ilə "Açıq Hökumətin təşviqinə dair 2012-2015-ci illər üçün Milli Fəaliyyət Planı" Approved. The document facilitates the access to information, regularly informs the public about

its activities, improves the functioning of the single electronic database of normative legal acts, expansion of public participation in the activities of public authorities, improvement of e-services, enhancing transparency in the field of tax audits and audits, activities in the field of tax audits and audits, and awareness-raising and co-operation in the promotion of open government [7].

The President of the country's space industry development and information security to ensure "signed by the Republic of Azerbaijan space industry and telecommunications satellites into orbit on" instruction, as well as the approval of the "cosmic industry in Azerbaijan on establishment and development of the State Program" Azerbaijani global satellite family member transformation, and the creation and application of satellite technologies .

Under the constitution adopted attributable by its democratic provisions in the further development specifying information, opinion and speech, freedom of the press and legal basis of the law, following the inability to dur "On mass media", "Television and Radio Broadcasting" "On Freedom of Information", "On Information, Information and Information Protection", "On Electronic Document and Electronic Signature", "On Telecommunications", "On State Secrets", "On Communications", "On Copyright and Related Rights" "On the Procedure for Considering Citizens' Appeals," and so on.

Publications for a long time si registered with the Ministry of Press and Information was the only body. However, after the adoption of the Law on State Registration of Legal Entities on February 6, 1996 some changes took place in this area. Thus, the Ministry of Justice registered the first edition was to be printed, and then agree to operate THOUSAND-in prevents - the license was sold. " On mass media " the new law comes into force, then get a special license to operate the press, as a special state registration

rules adopted by the civilized world, it was undemocratic.

However, this Law was partly touched upon the legal framework of electronic media, focusing mainly on the legal regulation of the media's activities, and not containing its essential features. Only on October 8, 2002, the main principles of television and radio broadcasting, regulating the activity of electronic media, state regulation of TV and radio broadcasting of the Republic of Azerbaijan, special regulation for broadcasting - licensing rules, procedures for organizing broadcasting, as well as the rights and obligations of the broadcaster and others. The law "On Television and Radio Broadcasting" has entered into force. This law, which forms the legal basis of the electronic media, has made great progress in the rapid progress of electronic journalism [14].

On 25 June 2002, after the adoption of the Law on Television and Radio Broadcasting, on the approval of the Statute on the National Television and Radio Council, The National Broadcasting Council was established as a regulatory body in this area with the Decree of the President of the Republic of Azerbaijan dated 5 October 2002. The Council's main objectives are to regulate the activities of television and radio broadcasting, to protect their independence and public interest in broadcasting, and to monitor compliance with the legislation on television and radio broadcasting. Under the organization's charter, the Council prepares and implements a single development concept of the broadcasting-information space; defines technical and quality standards and norms of TV and radio broadcasting; grants a special license for television and radio broadcasting and holds a competition for that purpose; "Public Television and Radio Broadcasting" the Respublikasının Organizations groups according to the Law on Broadcasting Board nomination to the work of the wheel organize it [15].

In 2004, a new draft law "On Public Television and Radio Broadcasting" was elaborated and adopted by the Council of Europe experts.

On September 30, 2005, the Law on Access to Information was adopted. The adop-

tion of this law was a major step forward in the country to provide more freedom of information access for journalists and ordinary citizens.

The main purpose of the law was to express in Article 1 r. Under the same article, the purpose of the law is to create conditions for the fulfillment of public affairs, other public functions, and the comprehensive and comprehensive control of society, individual citizens. To ensure that control is complete and fully implemented in accordance with the principles of democratic, law-governed and open society, the law serves to ensure that everyone has access to public information on a barrier-free and equal basis. Open Society Principles require that all societies and individual individuals be knowledgeable about what they are doing and how they affect their everyday life, so that people can influence the work, plans, workflows and influence them when necessary. An open society can only be where there are high democratic values [16 , 134].

"Access to Information" qanun tasks in a variety of media owners. For this purpose, the information holder must designate an information officer or, if necessary, establish a structural division on information issues. The knowledge holder is obliged to periodically train information workers and to create conditions for them to fulfill their legal obligations.

Name the bathroom anunun One of the advantages is a matter of what information can be disclosed. This is stated in Article 29 of the Law. One of the other advantages is the fact that the information holder's disclosure of information is clearly defined in the law. The informant should disclose a number of information that has been created or obtained as a result of the exercise of public responsibilities, in order to provide the interests of the society more easily and more effectively, to reduce the infrequently requested information inquiries [1, 7 , 74].

The information owner should disclose the following information in a way that is more or less accessible to the public, to reduce the number of informational inquiries, or to create public information: generalized statistical information, including generalized

statistics of offenses and administrative offenses; budget forecasts; statutes on structural divisions of state bodies; Guidelines on the activities of state bodies and municipalities; staffing schedules of state bodies and municipalities, names, surnames, phone numbers, e-mail addresses of officials working in those departments, as well as information on their education and qualifications; reports on the activities of state bodies and municipalities; names and surnames of employees in the governing bodies of legal entities performing public functions, e-mail addresses; conditions, results of state and municipal procurements as well as information on sale of state and municipal property, change of property rights on it; Information on loans, grants, terms and use of information holders defined by Article 9.1 of the Law; when draft normative acts are forwarded for approval or approval; from the date of entry into force of normative legal acts; information on the activities of legal entities performing public functions, information on their income and expenses; reports on the execution of the state budget and consolidated budget; the environment, environmental damage and hazardous environmental impacts, and so on.

Information holder and affiliated persons should not be liable for information acquisition and shall be liable for unlawful refusal to provide information. Norms related to the criminal-law protection of communications in the field of computer information are defined in Chapter 30, Cybercrime. These norms criminalize the following actions by publicly declaring a dangerous act and establish criminal responsibility for their commitment.

The law "On State Secrets" regulates relations arising in connection with secrecy, protection and use of information, confidentiality or disclosure of confidentiality in order to ensure the security of the Republic of Azerbaijan. The law of the state authorities and officials in the state secret and protec-

tion of the powers of state secret list of information, the state secret conduct and confidentiality principles, d, State secret is not and confidential data, meter data in secrecy rates and these data carriers privacy ghosts, m data in the secret, their carriers confidentiality rule, m the information provided in relation with confidentiality of the citizens, enterprises, institutions and organizations of the same information, the ownership restriction, d, State secret information carrier details, m data in declassification procedures, d, State declassification of information carriers secrecy rules are identified, as well as the disposal of secret information, d, state secret protection, d, state secrets safety funding, Responsibility for violation of the legislation of the Republic of Azerbaijan on state secrets, control over securing of state secrets, etc. the provisions of this Convention.

Criminal - Procedural Code of the investigation and the data collected during the investigation establishes the rules for the protection of spreading.

The secret of the lawyer, the secret of the notary, the secret of a doctor, the secret of banking, the secrecy of the bank, the secrecy of the journalist's information resources, are regulated by the relevant legislative acts.

"İnformasiya, informasiyalaşdırma və informasiyanın mühafizəsi haqqında" 3 aprel 1998-ci il tarixli Azərbaycan Respublikası Qanununun "Qanunun təsir dairəsi" adlanan 1-ci maddəsində göstərilir ki, "... bu Qanun informasiyanın yığılması, işlənməsi, saxlanması, axtarışı, yayılması əsasında informasiya formation of resources, information systems, technologies and their establishment and use of them, regulates the relationships arising in connection with the protection of information and defines the rights of subjects involved in information processes".

As you can see, the law largely regulates informational relationships. Unfortunately, Article 2 of the same law, called "Basic Concepts," did not give a legal definition of the information relationships.

The Law of the Republic of Azerbaijan "On Freedom of Information" of 19 June 1998 regulates the relations arising in connection with the exercise of freedom of information. The law provides for freedom of information, the freedom of information and its exchange, the objective, fullness and truthfulness of the information, the legitimacy of the search, acquisition, use, dissemination and protection of information, the preservation of the mystery of everyone's private and family life, safety based on progressive principles.

The Law of the Republic of Azerbaijan "On Combating Terrorism" also regulates issues related to the provision of necessary information to the society regarding terrorist acts. Thus, under Article 11 of the Act, information on terrorist acts during anti-terrorism operations is provided to the public in the form and volume determined by the head of the operational headquarters or the public relations officer of the operational headquarters. The following information is not permitted:

- 1) on tactics and techniques of conducting anti-terrorist operations;
- 2) Information on the obstacles to the conduct of anti-terrorist operations that endanger the lives and health of people in the zone of operations against terrorism or beyond the limits of this zone;
- 3) information that justifies terrorism or serves their propaganda;
- 4) Persons participating in anti-terrorist operations and assisting in the conduct of such operations [1, 8].

According to media law experts, there are both useful and harmful aspects of presenting terrorist messages to the public as it is through media. The benefits of such information to the public are as follows: society has the opportunity to receive free and uncensored information, so that it can be prevented by the state and other provocations that can be disseminated against it, confidence in the power structures of the

state, confidence in the state, media coverage of the events. As for terrorism, it is against the harmful side of the public offering: the incitement of the incident to encourage other criminal groups, the more attention you keep to the news can be a source of terrorists' heroic image and errors, and a tactic to use.

On the other hand, live broadcasting of ongoing terrorist attacks on the media is inadmissible. Broadcasting is mainly carried out in close proximity to power structures that are trying to put an end to terrorism. If the terrorists have the opportunity to watch TV, the terrorist act can take longer, more horrible consequences. At the same time, the main emphasis in terrorist attacks is that it is dangerous for the state to overturn the power structures trying to cross the scene. This can lead to chaos in the community, the formation of a lack of confidence [17, 103].

Terrorism is a global threat factor not only isolating individual states, but also the international community as a whole. In modern age forms of terrorism, and malicious manifestations of humanity are rapidly changing. Along with traditional types of explosions and destruction, information terrorism has also been widely used. However, the Law on Combating Terrorism does not specifically stipulate information terrorism. However, information terrorism can inflict severe blows on the interests of the individual, society and the state, and sometimes to overcome the serious consequences (such as the state's economic system as a result of cyber attacks, state information resources, etc.) is more difficult and problematic than eliminating becomes. This type of terrorism should also be specified in the law and its understanding, ways of characterizing it, as a whole, the legal regulation of the relations arising in this area.

Legislative acts regulating information relations may also include the Law of the Azerbaijan Republic "On Advertising". As it is seen from the legitimate advertisement law, advertising itself is actually a fact (as under article 2.0.1 of the law, advertisers need to attract the advertiser's attention to any form by using various means and methods, to shape and maintain their interests, is the information published to promote the com-

modity market and stimulate its sales). Therefore, many issues related to the legal regime of information are also related to advertising. The second chapter of the law dedicated to the features of advertising broadcasting tools. It contains information on teleradio programs (publications), periodicals, written notices, printed and audiovisual information, published by telecommunication devices and postings, etc. the legal regulation of relations with the advertisement.

Today the existence of the independent Azerbaijan state, its democratic traditions and institutions, and the successful continuation of those traditions are directly related to the name of the great leader. The existence of human rights, political pluralism and civil society in Azerbaijan finds its confirmation both in the independent activity of the mass media forming as a democratic institution

and in the legal framework and guarantees for their development. Exceptional orders and decrees signed by the great leader in the formation and development of independent media in Azerbaijan have been an exceptional role.

Thus, the information policy of the independent state of Azerbaijan is aimed at further expanding the freedom of information, opinion, word and press, eliminating artificial obstacles in this area, refusal to control the media, freedom of information, opinion, freedom of speech and press, as a factor, reflecting the content of that policy, the further improvement of the regulatory framework regulating the activities of the mass media as well as the media as a whole, to the progressive international values and standards and this process is still going on.

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